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## ABSTRACT

Presented are five papers selected from five regional 1973 conferences on financing education programs for handicapped children. R. Rossmiller's paper, "Coming to Grips with Costs and Expenditures" discusses such program aspects as organizational programs, financial policies, population identification, and empirical and theoretical studies. An overview of state laws, legislative trends, and suits on behalf of the handicapped (including Pennsylvania, New York, and Michigan cases) is provided in R. Browning's paper "School Finance: Where Are the Handicapped?" R. Henderson's consideration of "Financing Special Education for Exceptional Pupils" covers the topics of special education costs per program, prevalence of exceptional children, and state reimbursement of special education costs. Also provided are selected panel presentations of P. Turnham, M. Daly, M. Essex, T. Drain, H. Wrigalter, and J. Schrag. State priorities, including financing of early childhood special programs, interagency cooperation, and mainstreaming are suggested. Listed in the information supplement are state special education program and finance officials. (CL)

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## FINANCING EDUCATION PROGRAMS FOR HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

Selected papers and highlights from five  
regional conferences on Financing Education Programs for  
Handicapped Children, held in the fall/winter of 1973

Prepared by Nancy Ellen Cain, Research Associate  
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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,  
EDUCATION & WELFARE  
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## FOREWORD

The financing of any kind of education program is never a matter to be taken lightly. In these times especially, government leaders, educators, administrators, parents and the general public are demanding more for the dollars they are required to spend. When it comes to the education of handicapped children, it is time to accept one proven fact: "While special education programs can be expensive, educating the handicapped can be cost-beneficial." It is my hope that this publication, based on stated objectives and providing different points of view, will convincingly convey this fact.

In 1919, the Wisconsin Supreme Court agreed that a mentally normal blind child could be barred from school because his handicap had a "depressing and nauseating effect" on teachers and children. In 1971, a U.S. district court ordered Pennsylvania to educate all retarded children aged 4-21, regardless of cost.

Those two judicial rulings illustrate one of the most dramatic developments in American education in the past half-century: After years of neglect, a substantial and growing proportion of the nation's mentally and physically handicapped children are now receiving special education services.

Nevertheless, more than half of an estimated seven million handicapped children still do not receive special services. Who are these children? They are those who deviate from average children in mental, physical or social characteristics to the extent that they require special education programs and services to achieve their potential. Knock on any 10 doors on any street in the nation and the statistics say that behind at least one of them you will find a handicapped child.

It must be recognized that the special education movement has a proud history. Although there has been categorizing and labeling of children with mental and physical problems, hundreds of thousands of children have been served. And now, educators have become even more knowledgeable about handicapped children and more sophisticated in providing them with appropriate services. Rather than almost automatically sending the children away to residential institutions or isolating them in special education classes, the emphasis is shifting toward integrating them into

regular classrooms, either on a full-time or part-time basis whenever appropriate and to the greatest extent possible, while recognizing that a full continuum of services is essential.

While no state is serving all its handicapped children, 48 states now have legislation mandating some kind of educational service for handicapped children. Five of those states enacted such legislation earlier this year.

Much of the recent legislative ferment can be attributed to increasing demands by parents for a "right to education" for their handicapped children. Not too many years ago, these parents were far less willing to make known their needs, their frustrations and their hopes. Now they have become better organized, more vocal, more insistent and more demanding. Legislatures—and the courts—are responding.

And if, as court orders and legislatures decree, local public school districts are to assume increasing responsibility for the education of handicapped children, a major shortage must be met. dollars.

Special education programs can be expensive. There is wide variation in the cost of educating children with learning problems, depending on the nature of the disability and the administration or teaching arrangements involved. The federally-funded National Educational Finance Project found that model programs for mentally retarded children cost nearly twice as much per pupil as regular elementary school programs; programs for the physically handicapped cost more than three times as much.

And yet, educating the handicapped is cost-beneficial. It is far better to invest in special education today, so a handicapped child can become self-sufficient tomorrow, than to pay \$150,000 to \$200,000 to maintain a handicapped person in an institution for 50 to 60 years. While handicapped children account for 10 per cent of the nation's school-age population, less than four per cent of total elementary-secondary school expenditures are spent on special education.

As Edwin W. Martin, associate commissioner of the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, U.S. Office of Education, said two years ago: "In addition to the basic right of a child to full educational opportunity, educating the handicapped works; we are not wasting our time or our money."

It is our purpose to make you more aware of what is being done and what can be done. It is our hope that when you see that more can be done for handicapped children in your states and you are able to identify a number of action steps that might be taken, that you will both call on us and share these ideas with us.

*Gene Hensley, Director  
Handicapped Children's Education Project*

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## INTRODUCTION

In late 1973, five regional conferences were held on the financing of education programs for handicapped children. The conferences were sponsored by the Handicapped Children's Education Project (HACHE), a program of the Education Commission of the States.

HACHE, which has been funded by the U.S. Office of Education's Bureau of Education for the Handicapped since 1971, assists states in improving educational services for handicapped children. Activities conducted by HACHE in cooperation with the states are designed to strengthen state legislation, improve the utilization and allocation of state resources, and provide for the formulation and application of state policies related to special education. Many of the objectives of the HACHE project are achieved by convening state leaders to address major issues in special education.

During the second HACHE project year, it became increasingly apparent that the major concern of the states in relation to special education was finance: How do we pay for what we need? In response to repeated requests for assistance, HACHE, in cooperation with the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, planned to conduct a conference series that would both ask questions and seek solutions on such issues as allocation of resources, costs vs. expenditures, implications of court decisions and patterns of financing programs.

The major goal of the conference series was to establish the importance of examining issues relating to the financing of special education, in relation to the major problems of general education finance which are viewed by policymakers as critical to the future of education.

The specific objectives of the conferences were to provide governors, state legislators, school administrators, state education leaders, budget and finance specialists, ECS commissioners and parents of the handicapped opportunities to collectively explore, analyze and discuss issues relating to the financing of education for handicapped children. State groups were able to identify specific state problems and develop strategies for solving them. Panel presentations, in addition to major speakers, encouraged participants to examine the issues from several different per-



spectives. Each conference ran for two and one-half days and was designed to provide the maximum level of interaction among participants.

These conferences dealing with finance, one of the major issues in implementing legislation, were a follow-up to a series of regional conferences on legislation and the education of handicapped children that was conducted by HACHE two years ago.

## COMING TO GRIPS WITH COSTS AND EXPENDITURES

*Richard A. Rossmiller  
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Americans have always paid their respects to the goal of equality of educational opportunity. Too frequently, however, their tribute has been little more than lip service. The upheavals of the post-Sputnik years have demonstrated clearly that equality of educational opportunity has been much more a myth than a reality. During the late 1950s Sputnik focused attention on our failure to provide adequately for education of the gifted; in the early 1960s we became aware of the educational problems of the poor, and compensatory education became the watchword. More recently, those who feel they are being denied educational equality have turned to the courts and nearly every state now has its own version of the Serrano case.

Handicapped children are among the groups who consistently have been denied equality of educational opportunity. They too often have been discouraged from attending the public schools or even excluded from them. Education programs for handicapped children were practically unknown prior to the present century, and even today, many handicapped children are not being provided with education programs designed to meet their needs. As evidence of the inadequacies of present education programs for handicapped children, one needs look no further than the legal arena. Parents and others who are concerned about the education of handicapped children have increasingly turned to the courts for help. In *Mills vs. Board of Education*,<sup>1</sup> for example, it was ruled that failure to provide exceptional children a free and suitable publicly supported education cannot be excused by the claim that there are insufficient funds. A number of court cases have affirmed the right of every child, whether normal or handicapped, to obtain an appropriate education in the public schools.<sup>2</sup>

The question, "What constitutes equality of educational opportunity?" has long been debated. I prefer to think of equality of educational opportunity in terms of access to resources. Using this

approach, equality of educational opportunity will exist when every individual is assured of free and equal access to those education programs which will enable him to develop to the fullest his innate talents, skills and abilities.

This definition does not require that an equal number of dollars be spent for the education of each pupil as is sought by some reformers. We have known for a long time that not all education programs are equally costly . . . and for very good reasons. The cost of an identical education program will vary from region to region simply because economic factors such as living costs vary from one place to another. More importantly, children are remarkably variable. Each child is a unique individual with unique attributes. Some children are gifted with particular ability and talent that deserve special attention; other less fortunate children are handicapped in ways that also deserve special attention.

My definition of equality of educational opportunity does not assume that every child will attain the same level of mastery in all aspects of learning. Although there is growing evidence that a vast majority of children can master basic skills if they are given appropriate instruction and sufficient time, it is also clear that some children, such as the mentally handicapped, are not likely to ever master certain skills. And most of us who play golf soon recognize that our mastery of the motor skills involved will never reach the level demonstrated by Jack Nicklaus. Those who want to define equality of educational opportunity as equal mastery of knowledge or skills (for example, by scores on a standardized test) are doomed to frustration—at least at the present state of the educational art.

Provision of equal access to appropriate education programs is an attainable goal. Such a definition of equality of educational opportunity recognizes the need for program diversity to meet the unique needs of learners, and it does not impose standards of performance which are impossible to attain. Thus, it is an appropriate goal to guide the development of programs for financing the education of handicapped children.

### **The State's Responsibility**

The fact that education in the United States is primarily the responsibility of the individual states is firmly established.

Although the federal government has a legitimate interest in education because it is responsible for the general welfare of the people, it has no constitutional authority to control education. This authority rests with the individual states. Although most states have delegated to local education agencies considerable responsibility for the day-to-day operation of schools, the ultimate responsibility for providing public education remains with the state. If children are denied equality of educational opportunity by existing finance plans, or by patterns of school district organization, it is the state that is at fault. The state created local school districts and established finance plans and has both the authority and responsibility to change them.

### **The Handicapped Child**

Before discussing the financing of education programs for the handicapped, we should define a handicapped (or "exceptional") child. Kirk's definition is most useful:

The exceptional child is . . . that child who deviates from the average or normal child in mental, physical or social characteristics to such an extent that he requires a modification of school practices, or special educational services, in order to develop to his maximum capacity.<sup>3</sup>

It is also important to know how many children are handicapped, since this information is vital to proper planning. Table 1 contains two estimates of the incidence of handicapping conditions in the United States.

The estimates in Column 1 were published in 1954; those in Column 2 are currently used by the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, U.S. Office of Education. Several refinements in program categories are evident, as are changes in estimated incidence rates. The mentally retarded category has been subdivided into three groups and the overall incidence has increased from 2.0 per cent to 3.0 per cent. The category "learning disabilities" has been added with an estimated incidence of 2.0 per cent. The incidence of speech-handicapped children has increased from 2.0 per cent to 3.5 per cent. The categories "blind" and "deaf" have been divided to identify the partially sighted and the hard-of-hearing, and the incidence of these two conditions has been reduced by nearly 1 per cent. The estimated incidence of

**TABLE 1**  
**Estimates of the Incidence of Various Handicapping Conditions**  
**in the United States**

	<i>Estimates of Incidence (%)</i>	
	<i>(1)</i>	<i>(2)</i>
Educable Mentally Retarded	2.00	2.67
Trainable Mentally Retarded	N.E.	
Severely Mentally Retarded	N.E.	
Learning Disabilities	N.E.	2.50
Emotionally Disturbed	2.00	2.00
Speech Handicapped	2.00	3.50
Blind		0.02
Partially Sighted	0.20	0.20
Deaf	1.50	0.07
Hard-of-Hearing		0.50
Crippled and Other Health Impaired	1.50	0.50
Multihandicapped	N.E.	0.06
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>9.20</b>	<b>12.35</b>

- (1) Estimates by Rowaine P. Mackie and Lloyd M. Davis, College and University for the Preparation of Teachers of Exceptional Children, USOE Bulletin No. 13, Government Printing Office, 1954.
- (2) Current estimates by Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, U.S. Office of Education.

crippling has been reduced from 1.5 per cent to 0.5 per cent, and a category for multihandicapped has been added. In total, the estimated incidence of handicapping conditions has increased by over 3 per cent. This increase, however, is more the result of improved identification procedures and the development of special differentiated education programs than of a real increase in the incidence of handicapping conditions over the past 20 years.

It should also be noted that not all handicapped children require special education programs. Many handicapped children—for example, crippled children and emotionally disturbed children—do not need extensive special programming throughout their school years. Early identification and treatment often can overcome the educational disadvantages associated with a handicap and reduce or eliminate the need for special education programming. It also should be noted that the intensity of special education programming will vary within each category depending upon the severity of the handicap and the needs of the individual child.



## Variations in Special Education Programming

Within each category of the handicapped several program options are necessary—both to deal with the specific needs of the child and to achieve maximum efficiency in delivering the needed education services. The range of delivery systems for providing special education programs was examined at a recent conference sponsored by the Council for Exceptional Children, and nine program models were identified:<sup>4</sup>

1. Regular classroom with special consultation to the regular teacher
2. Regular classroom supplemented by an itinerant teacher
3. Regular classroom supplemented by a resource teacher
4. Part-time special education (i.e., student spends most of his time in special classes, but joins other students for certain activities)
5. Full-time special education (i.e., self-contained special class)
6. Special day school
7. Homebound instruction
8. Residential school
9. Hospital

The first three delivery systems provide special education services to *supplement* the regular education program. That is, the handicapped child participates in the regular school program and receives additional help as needed depending upon the nature of the handicap. The additional help ranges from providing consultation and advice to the child's regular teacher in option one to providing a room and special teacher within the building where the handicapped child can go for additional help or to obtain special instructional materials under option three.

In the delivery systems covered under options four and five, the child receives special education services as a *substitute* for the regular education program. The child is placed in a special classroom within the regular school building in both models. In option four, the child joins children in the regular school program for certain activities such as music, art or physical education. In option five, the child's entire education program is provided within a self-contained special classroom.

The programs provided under options six to nine are provided outside of the regular school building in special schools for the

handicapped (option six); through home instruction (option seven); through placement of the child in a residential school for the handicapped (option eight); or through instruction in a hospital to which the child is confined (option nine).

It should be evident that the "intensity" (as well as the cost) of special programs for the handicapped increases within this continuum of special program options. Option one, for example, is much less intensive than option five and will be considerably less costly. Option one may provide adequately for the special education needs of a mildly handicapped child or for a child who has been able to compensate for his handicap—a partially sighted or hard-of-hearing child, for example. Option five or option six may be needed, however, to meet the special education needs of a severely handicapped child.

Three points should be emphasized with regard to these special program options:

1. Within each category of the handicapped, the degree of handicapping varies from mild to very severe with attendant implications for education programming. Stated another way, not every blind child needs the same special education program. The program models discussed help plan a special education program for each child based on his or her specific handicaps.
2. A child should not be "locked in" to any one program option. If a program works, i.e., if it is effective, many children will need less intensive programs as they learn to compensate for their handicap. Provision for systematic reassessment of children is essential. To leave a child in a self-contained special classroom when that child is capable of making satisfactory progress in a regular classroom if given appropriate additional help is costly and inefficient, to say nothing of the noneconomic costs to the child's self-image and sense of personal worth.
3. Other things being equal, a child should be placed in the least costly program which will permit him to make satisfactory educational progress. Regular class placement is always preferable to special class or special school placement solely on the basis that greater efficiency can be achieved in the use of resources *if* a child can make satisfactory educational progress in a regular class.

### *Organizational Problems in Special Programming*

Existing patterns of school organization in some states make it difficult, and in some cases impossible, to achieve efficiency in delivering special education services. Many local education agencies are too small to provide even one program for each category of handicapped children—let alone the array of program options discussed in the preceeding section. If delivery of special education services is left solely to local education agencies, many handicapped children will be served poorly or not at all and few will be served efficiently.

State provisions for financing special education programs for handicapped children certainly should not reward the continued use of inefficient or outmoded delivery systems. Rather, they should encourage creative approaches to the problem of delivering special education services. Existing local education agencies need not be completely dismantled, but they should be encouraged to work cooperatively through a consortium of local districts or through intermediate agencies to develop efficient delivery systems. Nearly all local education agencies can provide services through options one, two and perhaps three, but many of them will be hard pressed to provide services under options four, five and six. However, a group of local school districts could band together and provide services under options four, five and six with one district providing a special class program for the blind, another a special class program for the severely mentally retarded, etc. Intermediate education agencies (such as the Boards of Cooperative Educational Services in the State of New York) could assume responsibility for providing some or all of the education programs for handicapped children in a given area. In any event, existing patterns of school district organization should not be permitted to impede the development of arrangements for delivering education services which: (1) will insure that every handicapped child has free access to an education program which is appropriate to his or her needs and (2) which is provided in the most efficient way possible.

### *Present Programs for Financing Special Education*

The problems of financing education programs for handicapped children received very little attention until recent years. A study undertaken by the Council for Exceptional Children (CEC) in the

late 1960s provided the most comprehensive review of state provisions for financing such programs. The results of the study were summarized as follows:

... most states have some form of reimbursement to local school districts for efforts for handicapped children beyond the general school reimbursement. . . . We might group the reimbursement formulas in two overall categories: unit formulas and per-pupil formulas.

An example of a pure unit-support program is the state of Alabama which provides one unit (which in this case is the minimum foundation support level for a teacher) for each class of special education students. Florida's special education laws are somewhat similar to those of Alabama. Florida, also operating on a unit basis, allows one unit to be granted for every 10 exceptional children in special classes, one unit for every 10 preschool children, as well as varying units to meet transportation costs. Unit systems such as those described above are most common in states operating under minimum foundation programs. Unit formulas place great fiscal authority in the hands of state boards of education and state legislatures, since the units must be appropriated in order to have any level of state financial assistance.

A second type of unit formula we might call the percentage reimbursement. A good example of this type of law is Virginia's which provides that the state assume 60 per cent of the cost of teachers' salaries at the state minimum salary level, 60 per cent of the hourly rate of visiting teachers and 100 per cent of the cost for staff serving children in hospitals. Another type of percentage reimbursement might be called the 100 per cent reimbursement or full-support program. An example of this can be found in South Dakota where the state provides 100 per cent of the approved amount for the program. Such financial reimbursement formulas can be misleading, since, due to low levels of state appropriations, as well as rapid rates of program growth, financing may be well below the 100 per cent figure.

The second general category of reimbursement is the per-pupil reimbursement. Under this system there are three basic patterns with variations.

First, there is the system which might be labeled the "straight sum reimbursement," as typified by the State of Arizona, which provides, in addition to the general state per-pupil reimbursement, \$600 for each trainable mentally retarded child and \$200 for all other types of handicapped children.

A second type of per-pupil reimbursement is the excess-cost formula. Under this system, the district first determines a per-pupil cost of instruction, then subtracts from this cost the cost of educating a nonexceptional child in the same district. Once the excess-cost figure is obtained, there are several variations on reimbursement. The first is exemplified by the State of Pennsylvania which places no limit on the excess cost. Tennessee represents a second type of formula in that the law places specific limitations (\$300) on the amount that the state may reimburse. A third variation is found in Michigan where the state reimburses a percentage of the excess cost, depending upon the amount appropriated by the legislature.

The third type of per-pupil reimbursement is the weighted formula. An example of this is New Mexico's law which uses a multiplier in determining the reimbursement for handicapped children. The State of Mississippi uses a somewhat similar approach on a unit basis by providing additional teacher units for special classes.<sup>5</sup>

The results of a recent study indicate that there has been little change in state finance programs since the study by the Council for Exceptional Children (CEC). Thomas was able to place state programs for financing special education into six categories corresponding to those identified in the CEC study with the exception that an additional category, reimbursement for personnel, was identified.<sup>6</sup>

### *Toward Improved Programs for Financing Special Education*

Most people realize that special education programs for handicapped children are more costly per pupil served than are regular education programs. Until recently, however, the amount of additional cost involved in providing programs for the handicapped was largely a matter of conjecture. The pioneering research conducted by the National Educational Finance Project estab-



lished some bench marks in this area and has focused considerable attention on the "excess" costs involved in various types of special education programs.<sup>7</sup>

It is certain that the provisions made by a state for financing special education programs will largely determine the nature, scope and efficiency of the delivery systems which develop. A state through its financing provisions can either encourage or stifle the development of efficient delivery systems and can either insure that every handicapped child has access to an appropriate special education program or that many handicapped children will effectively be denied access to such programs. To develop financing provisions which will achieve the twin objectives of assuring equal access to programs and achieving maximum efficiency in the use of resources will require much more data than we presently have concerning the number of handicapped children to be served, the extent to which they are now being served, the array of program options which exist and their distribution within the state, the cost of the existing programs, and (hopefully) the efficiency and cost-effectiveness of the existing programs.

### *Identifying the Population to Be Served*

The first necessary step in providing adequately for the education needs of handicapped children is to find out how many children are handicapped, the nature and severity of their handicaps and where in the state these children reside. It is unfortunate that procedures for identifying handicapped children leave a great deal to be desired in most states, because early identification and timely treatment are crucial. The handicapping effects of defective vision or hearing, for example, can frequently be reduced if a child is identified early and given training which will help him learn to use other senses to acquire information that normally would be gained through the defective sensory channel.

The task of identifying handicapped children cannot be done by the schools alone. A cooperative venture involving members of the medical profession, public health agencies, welfare agencies and the like will be needed. Not only must information be gathered, it must be updated regularly or normal population mobility will soon make it obsolete. Although the task is not simple, it is impossible for a state to plan adequately to meet the education needs of handicapped children unless their whereabouts are known and the natures of their handicaps have been determined. Unless

data are available on the number of handicapped children who need special education programs, it is impossible to determine the fiscal requirements of alternative financing arrangements.

### *Availability of Programs*

A second requirement for sound fiscal planning is knowledge concerning what programs and program options are currently available throughout the state. Such data are likely to reveal that some areas of the state are well served and other areas are poorly served. Even in areas that appear to be well served, however, program options may be limited in number, and children with some types of handicaps may not be well served. In areas that are poorly served the reasons for the lack of service must be sought. Existing patterns of school district organization may need to be altered, greater cooperation among districts may need to be encouraged or intermediate agencies may need to be established. If the school district in which a handicapped child resides cannot provide an appropriate and efficient special education program for that child, alternative arrangements should be considered.

### *Determining Program Cost*

The problems involved in determining the cost of existing special education programs are difficult and vexing. A basic source of difficulty lies in the fact that school accounting systems have traditionally been designed primarily to safeguard public funds—to insure that they are expended properly and that they are not misappropriated or stolen. Providing information concerning the amount of funds expended for various education programs or program options has until recently not been a matter of concern. Consequently, in most school systems it is extremely difficult to obtain accurate data concerning expenditures in education programs for handicapped pupils.

It is imperative that data be obtained concerning the cost of various programs if any meaningful estimates of the fiscal requirements of various alternatives are to be developed. Furthermore, the cost of the various programs should be expressed on a common base to facilitate comparisons. The cost-index approach developed by the National Educational Finance Project provides such a common denominator. In the cost-index approach, all special program costs are compared with the cost of a defined base program—for example, the cost per pupil of the regular school

program for pupils in grades 1-6. A cost index is neither time-bound nor place-bound and permits costs to be compared across programs and among districts. Cost indexes may be determined in either of two ways: (1) empirical studies using actual school system data and (2) theoretical studies utilizing the judgment of recognized authorities to determine the delivery systems and cost factors that would characterize an "ideal" system.

### *Empirical Studies*

The cost indexes and cost differentials identified by the National Educational Finance Project were based on empirical studies using data from actual school districts. Several additional studies conducted during the past year have utilized data from actual school systems to develop cost indexes for individual states. The methodology employed in these studies has been discussed in detail elsewhere<sup>8</sup> and will only be summarized here:

1. Identify the education program structure for which data are to be obtained in sufficient detail to identify meaningful distinctions between programs.
2. Identify alternative delivery systems which may be employed to provide the programs under consideration.
3. Select a representative sample of school districts which provide the education programs being studied.
4. Collect the necessary data and compute cost differentials and cost indexes by:
  - a. obtaining the full-time equivalent enrollment in each education program in each school district,
  - b. determining the current expenditure for each education program in each school district,
  - c. dividing the total cost of each program by the number of full-time equivalent students in the program,
  - d. calculating the difference between the cost per pupil of the base program and the cost per pupil of the special program (the cost differential), and
  - e. dividing the cost per pupil of the special program by the cost per pupil of the base program—the cost index.

The cost indexes obtained from the National Educational Finance Project research and from studies conducted in several states are shown in Table 2. It should be noted that caution is required when comparing these cost indexes. The requirements for placement in

TABLE 2  
Cost Indexes for Educational Programs for Handicapped Children

	NEFP*	Kentucky	Delaware**	Indiana	Texas	South Dakota
<b>Elementary Programs</b>						
Gifted	1.13	1.76	1.71	1.48	2.21	2.55
Educable Mentally Retarded	1.92	1.88	..	..	..	..
Trainable Mentally Retarded	2.20	1.68	1.49	2.03	..	2.43
Learning Disabilities	2.50	1.73	1.67	2.04	..	2.92
Emotionally Disturbed	3.70	1.52	2.29	1.50	..	2.47
Speech Handicapped	3.48	1.60	1.92	..	..	3.36
Blind	3.48	1.25	..	1.22	1.36	..
Partially Sighted	3.48	..	1.83	..	..	..
Deaf	3.15	1.79	1.83	..	..	..
Hard-of-Hearing	3.15	1.65	3.03	1.55	..	..
Orthopedically Handicapped	3.26	1.62	3.03	..	..	..
Multiple Handicapped	2.80	1.54	1.76	4.18	..	3.94
		1.65	..	..	..	..
<b>Secondary Programs</b>						
Gifted	1.13	1.80	1.51	..	2.29	2.41
Educable Mentally Retarded	1.92	1.49	..	..	..	..
Trainable Mentally Retarded	2.20	1.48	1.35	..	..	1.72
Learning Disabilities	2.50	..	1.24	..	..	1.69
Emotionally Disturbed	3.70	..	2.24	..	..	..
Speech Handicapped	1.25	1.35	1.95	..	..	3.96
Blind	3.48	1.91	..	..	1.29	..
Partially Sighted	3.48	..	2.48	..	..	..
Deaf	3.15	1.70	2.48	..	..	..
Hard-of-Hearing	3.15	1.22	3.05	..	..	..
Orthopedically Handicapped	3.26	1.25	3.05	..	..	..
Multiple Handicapped	2.80	..	1.29	..	..	12.04
Occupational Programs	1.80	..	..	..	..	..
		1.55	1.60	..	..	..
<b>Preschool Programs</b>						
Kindergarten	1.30	1.05	..	1.03	1.05	..

\*Elementary and secondary levels were not distinguished; the base cost was 1-12 inclusive.

\*\*Base cost for the secondary special programs was the secondary regular program.

the various special education program categories vary from one state to another, as do requirements for teacher certification, class size and a host of other factors which are likely to influence the cost of a given program. The data contained in Table 2, however, do provide useful estimates of the relative cost of educating children who have physical, mental or emotional handicaps.

The first column in Table 2 (headed NEFP) lists the cost indexes obtained in the research conducted for the National Educational Finance Project. These indexes were based on the cost of the regular education program provided for pupils in grades 1-12 in each district and made no differentiation between the cost of elementary and secondary school programs. The indexes for Kentucky, Delaware and South Dakota were obtained from studies conducted in each of these states using the same general techniques and procedures that were used in the original National Educational Finance Project study. In the case of the state studies, however, data were subdivided according to elementary and secondary school programs. The cost indexes obtained for Kentucky were based on a study involving 28 representative school districts; the Delaware study included all school districts in Delaware; and the South Dakota study included 13 of the largest school districts in South Dakota. The indexes reported for Indiana are obtained from a study conducted for Texas by the staff of the National Educational Finance Project. The Texas study did not deal with each program in detail; hence data are reported only for all elementary and all secondary school programs with the exception of the program for speech-handicapped pupils.

### *Theoretical Studies*

A theoretical approach to identify the "excess" cost of educating handicapped children was employed at a recent conference sponsored by the Council for Exceptional Children.<sup>9</sup> The methodology used was as follows:

1. Define a set of program delivery systems or optional ways of providing services to handicapped children.
2. Establish incidence figures (percentages of school-age children) for each handicapping condition.
3. Using a sample school district (either real or hypothetical), calculate the number of children with each handicapping condition who could be expected to reside in the district.
4. For each type of handicap, determine what percentage of



- children with that handicap could best be served by each delivery option: (a) at the present time and (b) ideally.
5. Determine the number of children with each type of handicap who would be served by each delivery system option (by applying the percentage from step four to the number of children in each category of handicap from step three).
  6. Establish the appropriate ratio of professional personnel to children for each delivery system model and type of handicap served both: (a) at the present time and (b) ideally.
  7. Compute the cost for each delivery system option and type of handicap.
  8. Compare the "standard" costs from step seven with the costs of serving nonhandicapped children in the school district to determine the "excess" costs of serving handicapped children.

Using this methodology, the incidence estimates shown in column two of Table 1, the delivery system options discussed earlier in this paper, and the data from a midwestern county which included large city, suburban and rural areas, it was found that the average per-pupil cost for special education was 2.4 times the average per-pupil cost of regular education if present practice is assumed, and that the ratio is 2.1 if optional practice is assumed. These cost indexes are somewhat higher than those which have been found in the empirical studies of program costs.

### *Some Limitations of Cost Indexes*

Cost indexes are especially useful for statewide planning. The availability of accurate cost indexes for a state should permit school officials and legislators to make much more accurate estimates of the amount of revenue needed to provide adequately for the special education needs of handicapped pupils.

One limitation of cost indexes arises from the fact that a cost index generally is expressed as either a statewide average or a median. Half of the school districts in a state will be spending more than the statewide average, and the remaining half of them will be spending less than the average. It should be obvious that using the average cost of all special education programs in the state as a basis for allocating funds to individual districts is no guarantee that adequate provision will be made for the special education needs of pupils in these districts. And using the average cost for a

particular special education program statewide as a basis for allocating funds presents the same problem. Provision must be made in any financing program to deal adequately with the fiscal needs of individual districts that deviate from the state average for good and sufficient reasons.

A second limitation of cost indexes lies in the fact that they reflect current education practice. That is, they reflect neither the efficacy nor the efficiency of an education program. They reflect only what is currently being done, not what could be done (or should be done) in the way of education programming for specific pupils. A cost index for a given district may be high because the district is not using its resources efficiently. On the other hand, a high cost index for a particular education program may be unavoidable in some districts for reasons such as unusual transportation costs or a limited number of eligible pupils. Either of these two factors, as well as several other factors, could increase the per-pupil cost of the program and thus increase the cost index. A program for financing education for handicapped pupils must be flexible enough to accommodate necessary differences in expenditure from one district to another and, at the same time, avoid subsidizing inefficiency in the provision of education services.

A third limitation of cost indexes is closely related to the second. Cost indexes show the relative cost of educating pupils in special programs compared with the cost of educating pupils in regular programs. They do not provide information as to how wisely or how efficiently funds are being expended for either regular or special education programs. It is possible that a given special education program could be offered to an equal number of students, could provide the same education services and could cost the same amount per pupil in two school districts, but that the cost indexes in the two districts could differ because of differences in the cost of the regular program in each district. Since a cost index provides no information about the efficiency and effectiveness of the regular school program, a low cost index may mask an inefficient regular school program that has an unnecessarily high cost per pupil. The opposite could also be true; if a district is spending at a low rate for pupils in its regular program, the cost index for special programs will be higher.

A fourth limitation of cost indexes can arise if the relative cost of the various delivery systems is not considered when developing the

cost index. There is ample evidence that special classes or special schools for handicapped children are more costly delivery systems than are those which provide supportive services to handicapped pupils who are enrolled in regular programs. A cost index which lumps together all programs for educating a particular category of handicapped children without regard to the way in which education services are delivered to such children will mask a great deal of cost variation within these programs.

Finally, it should be noted that, for a variety of reasons, costs will vary between districts for identical programs. In some districts, for example, the cost of transporting pupils involved in special programs will be much greater than in other districts. Another very important factor in determining the relative cost of education programs is the pupil/teacher ratio. Some districts will have too few pupils to operate a program at maximum efficiency, but pupils who live in these districts certainly should not be denied access to the education programs they need simply because there are not enough of them to operate a program at maximum efficiency. Differences in salaries and in the cost of educational supplies and materials exist between districts, and these differences will be reflected in education program costs and in cost indexes.

## Summary

Special education programs for handicapped children should be an integral component of each state's system of public education. The state should take steps to see that all handicapped children are identified and provided with free and equal access to an education program designed to help them deal with their handicaps. The state must also insure that its organization for education makes the needed education programs equally available to all children. Where existing patterns of school district organization cannot satisfactorily meet the needs of all handicapped children, other alternatives such as intermediate education agencies or education cooperatives should be encouraged.

The state's program for financing education should provide for financing the education of handicapped children as an integral part of the state school finance program. The program should recognize the generally higher cost involved in educating handicapped children and provisions should be made for equitable sharing of

these costs. No handicapped child should be denied access to an education program appropriate to his needs because he lives in an isolated community or because his parents are poor.

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## SCHOOL FINANCE: WHERE ARE THE HANDICAPPED?

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In an era when money often seems more and more difficult to come by and seems to buy less and less, it might be expedient and easy to ignore the problems and needs of the often most silent and underrepresented segment of the school-age population—physically, emotionally and mentally handicapped children—in favor of spending the much-needed funds elsewhere.

Fortunately, recent court decisions make it less likely that this will in fact happen, since they are more and more often deciding that handicapped children must be given their fair share of the education pie—as inadequate as it may seem.

### **Role of Litigation: An Overview**

These cases have involved three basic legal issues: due process issues, exclusion issues and questions concerning the suitability of the education that handicapped children receive.

#### *Due Process Issues*

One of the most significant issues that courts are dealing with in relation to the handicapped is what procedures schools must follow for either classifying a child as handicapped or excluding the child because the school feels it cannot deal with him or her. Parents of handicapped children have taken the position that the classification of children as handicapped or the exclusion of children from school is such an important decision that a hearing should be held to consider the appropriateness of the school's proposed classification. Parents who believe their children are incorrectly classified as handicapped are arguing that the classification is inappropriate and that the child should not be singled out from his peers and stigmatized as handicapped where the designation is incorrect, so a hearing must be held before any such classification is made.



Parents who believe that their children are handicapped and are not receiving appropriate services also wish a hearing. Furthermore, these parents are seeking hearings on the suitability of the education program for the handicapped child. A number of courts have already required hearings where schools impose disciplinary punishments on students.

Similarly, parents of handicapped children argue that misclassification or exclusion of the handicapped child has equal, if not more serious, consequences. And a few courts have begun to recognize that handicapped children and children with discipline problems are not discrete categories and that, therefore, a school may not avoid the obligation to educate a child by declaring the child to be incorrigible and expelling him, without giving the child and his or her family their fair chance to be heard.

### *Exclusion Issues*

Another major issue in the cases relating to the handicapped is whether a school district can exclude a child: (a) simply because the child is handicapped or (b) because the district decides that it cannot provide an appropriate education. Parents of handicapped children have taken the position that school districts are required by the state and federal constitutions and by state statutes to educate all children—including handicapped children. However, merely keeping a child in school does not insure that the child will receive a suitable education.

### *Suitability Issues*

Parents have also sought in these cases to insure that the school districts provide an education suited to the child's disability, defining education broadly to encompass whatever skills the child needs to become an independent and self-sustaining member of the community.

## **State Laws and the Handicapped Child**

Nearly every state has a state constitutional provision requiring its legislature to establish and maintain a system of free publicly supported schools. The terms of these provisions vary. Some require a "thorough and efficient education"; others require a "general and uniform education"; still others talk about "high-

quality" education. But they all have a common general thrust: to require each state to educate all of its children.

State statutes, however, have often run counter to the apparent obligation imposed on the state and school districts to educate all their children. Some states have statutes permitting school districts to exclude handicapped children if it can be shown that such children "cannot profit sufficiently from publicly supported schooling." Others allow exclusion if the handicapped child is "unable to reasonably benefit" from the available programs or if his/her attendance would be "detrimental to the welfare of other pupils."

Thankfully, many of the assumptions underlying such state laws, which have justified previous exclusion of handicapped children, have been undermined by modern education research and experimental programs which have clearly shown that the vast majority of children who have been classified as handicapped and excluded in the past, can profit greatly from well-designed education programs. That is, instead of being completely dependent on relatives or on the state, such handicapped people can be taught to live useful and, in many cases, economically productive lives.

### **Recent Legislative Trends**

In line with the new research findings, the trend of legislative neglect of handicapped children has begun to be reversed. Two years ago nearly 900 bills were introduced in state legislatures promoting education of the handicapped. And 237 of these bills were enacted. Most states now have statutory provisions that mandate education programs for the handicapped. These mandates are typified by a new Wisconsin law which requires the state "to provide for the educational needs of *all* handicapped children between the ages of 3 and 21 years."

### **Historical View of the Courts**

In an earlier era, courts frequently permitted school districts to exclude the handicapped by holding that decisions of school administrators were virtually unreviewable. During the 19th century and the first half of the 20th, the exclusion of handicapped children was but one type of administrative action by

educators that the courts legitimized. For example, in 1893, in a case dealing with the Cambridge School District, the Massachusetts Supreme Court held proper a school administrator's decision to exclude a child who was believed to be "so weak in mind as not to derive any marked benefit from instruction and who was troublesome to other children, making unusual noises, pinching others, etc."

The rationale for this and many cases of more recent vintage that dealt with the rights of handicapped children was that these children could be lawfully excluded from a public education if it could be shown that they: (a) distracted from the performance of other pupils; (b) took up undo amounts of the teacher's time; (c) were general discipline problems; (d) did not derive any benefit from schooling; or (e) lived in a district which did not have adequate facilities or personnel to deal with the education needs of handicapped children. Of late, however, the courts have taken a much closer look at these administrative decisions that work to exclude handicapped children from an education.

In recent years courts have been generally more willing to review seriously the decisions of education administrators, to determine whether legal rights of children have been violated. This trend was begun by the landmark school desegregation decision, *Brown vs. Board of Education* in 1954. Later, the U.S. Supreme Court held that a student's right to freedom of speech and the press is not eliminated upon entry on the school grounds—thus opening up new areas of education decision making to judicial scrutiny.

In more recent years the judgments of educators have become desanctified. (I suspect this mirrors the changing view of education by the public.) This has happened with other institutions in this society as well. For example, courts used to refuse to review decisions of prison administrators. However, recent exposes of conditions in prisons and jails in this country have convinced many courts that jails are frequently run on the basis of expediency rather than good penological practice.

As the public and the courts have come to realize that many considerations other than good education practice enter into decisions made by teachers and school administrators, courts have been more willing to review what goes on in the schools to determine whether constitutional or statutory rights have been honored.

## Suits on Behalf of the Handicapped—A New Role for the Courts

The first modern decision regarding the handicapped arrived in 1970 when the 2nd Circuit Federal Court of Appeals suggested in *McMillan vs. Board of Education* that the refusal of New York State to provide adequate resources for some retarded children while providing such services to others may constitute a violation of the equal protection clause of the 14th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution.

By 1971, the reform movement on behalf of the handicapped was in full swing in the courts; and in that year one of the most significant suits litigated to date was decided, *Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Children vs. Pennsylvania*—or, as commonly known, PARC. The PARC suit, brought by mentally retarded children who challenged their exclusion from programs of education and training in the public schools, was based on three theories. Their first claim was that it is unconstitutional under the due process clause not to give parents notice and a hearing before a retarded child is either excluded from a public education or changes are made in his/her education assignment within the system. The plaintiffs also challenged the state's assumption that retarded children are "uneducable and untrainable" as not being rationally based in fact and therefore a violation of the equal protection clause of the U.S. Constitution. Third, plaintiffs contended that the Pennsylvania Constitution and statutes required the state to provide an education to "all children."

The court in PARC did not have a chance to rule on the merits of these three contentions. Before the court had to make a final decision the parties settled the case by agreement. Plaintiffs and the state agreed: (a) that all mentally retarded persons are capable of benefiting from a program of education training and that (b) no such child will have his or her education status changed without being given notice and a hearing. The court entered this agreed order and it now has the force of law in Pennsylvania.

In late 1972, a third landmark suit was decided by a federal district court in Washington, D.C. The name of this case is *Mills vs. Board of Education*. The court in *Mills* enjoined the District of Columbia school system from excluding handicapped children and required the district to "provide each child of school age a free and suitable publicly supported education regardless of the degree of the child's mental, physical or emotional disability or impair-

ment." Thus, parents and children in D.C. now have the right to a hearing before classification as handicapped and a right to a suitable education. The *Mills* decision also stated that it would not be an adequate defense for the school system to claim that it lacked sufficient funds to educate handicapped children.

### **Other Suits on Behalf of the Handicapped**

Although the *Mills*, *PARC* and the earlier *McMillan* decisions do not unequivocally state that handicapped children have a right to publicly supported education suitable to their needs under the U.S. Constitution, they sparked a multitude of law suits throughout the country dealing with the handicapped. At last count there were 27 suits filed in 17 states and the District of Columbia. Of these, 11 are in state court—the remainder in federal. Nearly all are class actions challenging the constitutionality of entire state systems, charging that they operate to exclude handicapped children from education.

Not many of these cases have been decided. The few that have deal with rather interesting issues.

#### *The Connecticut Decision*

For example, a state court in Connecticut required the state to pay, out of state funds, the tuition costs incurred by parents for their handicapped child and ordered the local school district "to furnish the child with a special education required by the statutes of the state."

#### *The Michigan Case*

In Michigan a suit which was very similar to *PARC* was made moot by the passage of a state law requiring the education of all children, specifically including the handicapped.

#### *The New York Suit*

A New York State case raised an interesting possibility for testing the adequacy of school district programs for the handicapped. In that case a handicapped child had spent five years in a public school, including three years in special education classes, but was still reading at the first-grade level. His parents took him out of

public school and put him in a private school where in one year he made a two-year jump in reading achievement. As a result, the court found the district's special education program to be a failure and ordered the district to reimburse the parents for tuition for the adequate education provided by a private school.

### *Summary of Cases*

Most cases thus far decided have held in favor of the handicapped children and their parents. However, the law in this area is still not clear. The U.S. Supreme Court has not yet ruled on the claims of handicapped children—nor have state supreme courts.

### **Federal Courts**

I am sure that most of you know of the recent U.S. Supreme Court decision in the Texas school finance case, *San Antonio Independent School District vs. Rodriguez*. In that case the Supreme Court held that the wide disparities among school districts in Texas in assessed valuation per pupil and in per-pupil expenditures were not unconstitutional. To what extent might this case hurt the suits relating to the handicapped which are pending in federal court? I am reasonably optimistic that the Texas school finance case will not significantly affect these suits. These suits are distinguishable from the Texas case in three basic ways.

#### **1. *Inequality vs. Total Exclusion—Relative vs. Absolute Discrimination***

In the first place, the Supreme Court noted that *Rodriguez* did not deal with total exclusion from public education, but only with a relative deprivation in terms of education resources. It specifically found that Texas was providing an adequate minimum education to all its students—a very different situation from the often total exclusion of handicapped youngsters.

#### **2. *Suspect Classification***

In *Rodriguez*, the Supreme Court refused to find that children living in poor districts constituted a discrete suspect class. In the past when the court has found a suspect class, it has looked very closely at any discrimination against that class and has required the state to carry a heavy burden to justify such discrimination. The suspect classification which

I'm sure you all are most familiar is that of race. The court said in *Rodriguez* that it did not believe that children in poor districts had suffered a history of unequal treatment and powerlessness as had racial minorities. In several recent cases, however, the court has moved in the direction of finding that illegitimate children constituted a suspect class. These were children who fell in that category through no fault of their own and the court believed it unfair that they should be unequally treated for certain purposes. Handicapped children appear to be much like illegitimate children in this regard. There is certainly a history of unequal treatment in both cases and both are stigmatized through no fault of their own. Moreover, they are both politically powerless groups.

### 3. *Educational Adequacy*

*Rodriguez* left open the possibility that if it were shown that the educational opportunities provided were inadequate, in the words of the court, "to acquire the basic minimum skills necessary for the enjoyment of the rights of speech and the full participation in the political process," it might find such discrimination constitutionally significant. Suits on behalf of the handicapped dramatically make this point about the basic inadequacy of education programs—especially when the handicapped children receive no programs at all. It can be readily demonstrated that in the latter situation, handicapped youngsters will have no opportunity to learn how to exercise constitutional or political rights. One lower federal court has already agreed that the suits for the handicapped are distinguishable. Following *Rodriguez*, a state defendant in a Colorado case sought to have the suit dismissed on that basis. The federal court, applying many of these distinctions, found that the issues in the suit were different from those in *Rodriguez* and denied the motion to dismiss.

### **Lau vs. Nichols**

The Supreme Court is now in the process of considering issues of educational adequacy and exclusion from the education process. In *Lau vs. Nichols*, recently argued before the court, non-English speaking Chinese students claimed that they have been effectively excluded from an education by the failure of the San Francisco school district to provide any instruction that will enable them to benefit from their classes, which are now taught entirely in English.



*(Editor's Note: In a unanimous decision, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that local school districts must take affirmative steps to help students who do not speak English.)*

What would happen if the federal courts turned thumbs down on the suits relating to the handicapped? That would be a situation much like that facing school finance reformers today: plaintiffs undoubtedly would turn to state courts. A few years ago, seeking relief in state court in this or related matters would have been viewed as wasted effort. However, the responsiveness of state courts to the unfairness of inequalities in educational opportunities between school districts has been encouraging. There are a number of finance equalization suits pending in state courts, and the prospects for plaintiffs winning these cases remain substantial.

### **Relationship Between Suits**

The school equalization cases and the suits for the handicapped do not involve discrete areas. Indeed, historically the school finance suits were originally viewed as being intended to specially benefit a particular group of handicapped youngsters—the educationally disadvantaged. However, in two cases decided in the late sixties, the federal courts rejected the theories proposed by the plaintiffs in those suits—that state school finance systems were unconstitutional because they failed to allocate funds to districts on the basis of the particular education needs of students.

### *Two Areas Have Never Been Discrete*

The same poor school districts that are unable to provide a quality education for children in regular programs will inevitably have a similar difficulty providing the more expensive programs needed for handicapped children—unless, of course, programs for the handicapped are fully funded separately by the state. Furthermore, children presently in regular programs do not necessarily constitute a homogeneous group. Educators are increasingly cognizant of the varieties of special education problems of children now in regular programs, and the goal of individualized instruction is an attempt to respond to this recognition.

Moreover, the recognition that handicapped children will ultimately have to cope with the problems of the wider world and that their education should be geared to this has prompted parents of

handicapped children and many educators to push to keep as many children classified as handicapped in the regular classroom to as great an extent as possible—or in a word, mainstreaming. As we expand our knowledge and attempt to incorporate the facts that children, grouped as normal, often have handicaps, and that those classed as handicapped can, in certain respects, function as normal children or participate in school programs with them, these classifications will in many cases seem even less discrete than they are today.

An additional way in which school finance litigation and cases for the handicapped are related can be seen in the attention which the school finance cases focused on inequities in the allocation of education resources. In responding to school finance suits, legislators and educators have begun to focus on alternatives to present financing systems. This has resulted in studies exploring the financial implications of funding education based on particular needs of the students, and legislation has resulted from these studies. As a result we know a good deal more today about both the cost of a regular education and what must be spent to educate children with particular types of handicaps.

There was some initial fear that state legislatures might respond to school finance equalization suits by enacting revised school finance formulas based on the concept of "one dollar per scholar." That is, equating equal opportunity strictly with equal dollars per child. That fear has, in large measure, proved unwarranted. At least 11 states have enacted significant reforms to their school finance systems. Nearly all of these provide, through one method or another, additional funding for children requiring extra educational resources.

One of the most interesting of these, enacted in Florida, provides weightings ranging from one for normal children in grades from 1 to 12 to 4.5 for hospital and home-bound children. These weightings determine what level of state funds a school district will receive to educate each child. Another example of these weighting schemes is the cost differential weightings developed by the National Education Finance Project which have provided a model for much new school finance legislation.

As I originally indicated, probably the greatest barrier to adequate reform in school finance and to expanding and developing programs for handicapped children is money. In the short run, at



least, the federal government is not likely to provide significant amounts of additional funds. The Advisory Committee on Intergovernmental Relations has suggested that states have adequate taxing capacity to provide the funds necessary for educational reform. Yet, tax capacity and political will to raise taxes or to tap new sources of revenue are quite different matters. Thus, it should come as no surprise to learn that those states which have recently enacted reforms in school finance have found additional funds in part from new general revenue surpluses, as in Florida, and in some cases, as in Maine, by using federal revenue sharing funds for education reform.

It is probably fair to say that we do not know what the long-range cost of providing all handicapped children with a suitable education program would be. There are counter pressures at work here. Some parents of children designated as handicapped are claiming that their child has been inappropriately stigmatized with that label and that the child has normal capabilities—or that even though the child is handicapped, he should remain in the regular classroom—perhaps with supportive services.

On the other hand, there are parents of children who are clearly handicapped and who are not being served at all by the schools today. Programs of education or training for those children will certainly cost additional money.

One effect of the greater concern that courts and legislatures are now showing for the education of the handicapped is certain to be the development and expansion of programs which offer a continuum of services from less costly regular classroom instruction, supplemented by a resource teacher, to very costly residential, hospital or home-bound care—with the goal of using the least restrictive alternative that is appropriate.

It is important to note also that we may in some cases today be improperly placing certain children in retarded classifications, especially in school districts serving large numbers of economically disadvantaged minorities, where many children are misclassified as retarded. However, although many such children may have normal capacities to learn, it is not known whether remedial and compensatory education needed to tap this capability would be less costly than the so-called retarded or special education classes in which they are presently enrolled, nor do we know the limits of mainstreaming and to what extent it will be less costly than

self-contained classes for handicapped children. Furthermore, we do not know with any accuracy how many children are, in fact, retarded, today.

Whether all court decisions will mandate additional resources based on particular children's educational needs is yet to be determined. The answer to this issue is likely to be found in the statutory and constitutional framework of each individual state.

Ultimately the question of where the money will come from and how it will be allocated is a political decision that will be made by people like you—legislators, school board members, educators and finance experts. If, however, these decisions are not made and if handicapped children continue to be excluded from school and if children who attend schools in tax-poor districts continue to be subjected to low-quality education, the courts will almost assuredly step into the breach as they have done in the past in areas such as legislative apportionment and school desegregation.

## FINANCING SPECIAL EDUCATION FOR EXCEPTIONAL PUPILS\*

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Providing special education services for exceptional children—whether handicapped or gifted—is expensive. Specifically, it costs more to educate almost any type of exceptional child than it does for the normal, or “average,” child. Why? Primarily because of standards established in the enabling legislation which require such things as: (1) special diagnostic procedures such as individual psychological examination by a school psychologist; (2) a pupil/teacher ratio much lower than that for regular education so as to permit more individualization of instruction; (3) special equipment and materials such as large type and braille books for the visually handicapped; and (4) ancillary services to supplement the regular or special education class program and to maintain liaison with community agencies also providing services to the child.

The concept of moving handicapped children back into the “mainstream” of regular education from special class placement also causes temporary periods of what might be called “inefficiency,” in that the special class will not have a full class load (i.e., the number of children permitted by law or regulation), and therefore the pupil/teacher ratio will decrease, causing the per-pupil-cost to increase. Conversely, starting a new special class program is usually done in a gradual fashion, especially with emotionally disturbed or multiply handicapped children, with others added as they are identified and as the classroom environment will permit. Thus, while the enrollment at the end of the term may be near the limits set, the average enrollment over the school year will be considerably less, with the average cost-per-pupil reflecting this average enrollment.

Where the special education service is provided to the gifted or handicapped child *in addition to*, rather than *in lieu of*, regular education, all costs of the special service are additional to the costs of educating the average child in that district. An enrichment

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\*This paper was utilized as a major resource document during the HACHE conference series.

program with a teacher-consultant for the gifted, or a speech correction program on an itinerant basis, would both be examples of such special education services. All costs connected with such programs are in addition to the regular education costs, since the time spent with the special education person does not generate more attendance for the district—only a temporary reduction in class size for the regular class teacher.

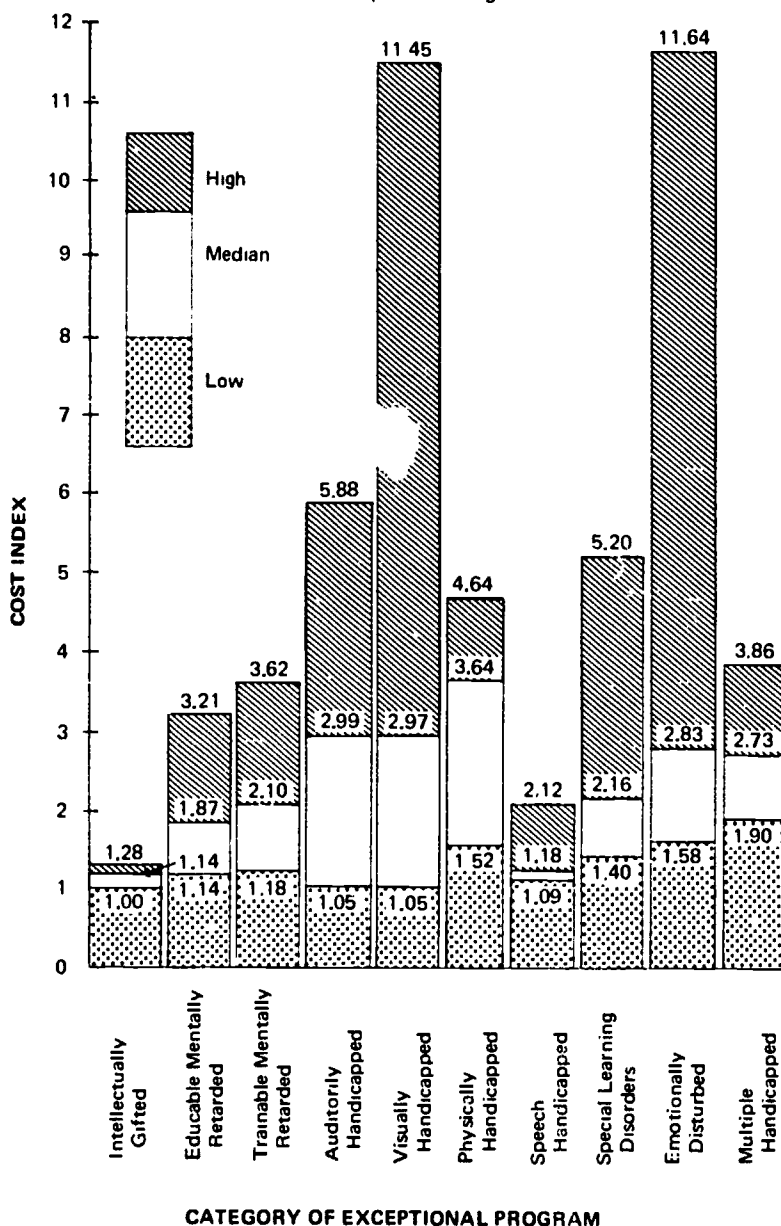
### Comparison of Special Education Costs Per Program

Several studies have recently been made of the costs of different programs for handicapped children. Four types of differences were found:

1. Between states, based on different definitions of categories, standards established for each kind of program, etc.;
2. Between school districts for the same kind of program;
3. Between different types of programs in the same district; and
4. Between cost ratios (special-to-regular) per program and district.

In *Special Study Number 2* of the National Educational Finance Project, Rossmiller, Hale and Frohreich ("Educational Programs for Exceptional Children: Resource Configurations and Costs") analyze the costs of some 10 special education programs in 27 school districts in 5 states (California, Florida, New York, Texas and Wisconsin). Figure 1 taken from page 114 of that study dramatically illustrates the wide variance in cost index (the ratio of the cost for the special education program to the cost for the regular program) between school districts and within the programs for children with the same handicapping condition. The largest difference can be seen in the program for visually handicapped children. Here the district with the lowest costs spent only 5/100 more per visually handicapped child as for the nonhandicapped child, while the most expensive program cost 11.45 times as much! Since some of this variance might represent gross differences in quality of program, it should be noted that the 27 districts were selected for study on the recommendation of the state department of education's director of special education, in that each was representative of that state's "... high quality, comprehensive educational programs for exceptional children." (p. 39)

**FIGURE 1**  
**Cost Indexes by Program for School Districts Having the Highest,**  
**Median and Lowest Cost Index for Each Category of**  
**Exceptional Program**





The per-pupil dollar costs of several special education programs in seven selected school systems in Illinois can be seen in the data supplied from Sorensen's study: "A Cost Analysis of Selected Public School Special Education Systems in Illinois" (1973).

Sorensen's study was limited to handicapped children and included the following categories:

1. Educable Mentally Handicapped (EMH)
2. Trainably Mentally Handicapped (TMH)
3. Socially Maladjusted (SM)
4. Learning Disabilities (LD)
5. Emotionally Disturbed (ED)
6. Hard-of-Hearing (HH)
7. Deaf (Df)
8. Visually Impaired (VI)
9. Physically Handicapped (PH)
10. Multiply Handicapped (MH)

The bar graph, Figure 2 on page 35, represents the mean—or average—cost per pupil in each type of program for all districts combined. The line in the center of each bar depicts the range of cost-per-child for each program from the most expensive (the top of the line) to the least expensive (bottom of the line). The small letters located along the line identify the cost-per-child for each district; for example, "C" stands for the Champaign, Ill., schools.

Here we see the same picture as obtained from the Rossmiller, *et al.*, data: average costs differing between programs and wide differences between districts operating the same kind of program. Examination of Table 3 on page 36 breaks down the average cost per program ("Gross Cost") into the three major components: "Direct Instructional Expenditures," "Special Education Supportive Services" and "General Administration and Operations." "Special Education Reimbursement" refers to the special funds received by the district from the state for employing certificated special education personnel. The line "System Average" means the cost-per-pupil for the average (nonhandicapped) child. This varies from program to program, as the various systems selected in Illinois did not operate all 10 of the programs in each case.

The "Gross Ratio" reported is the same as Rossmiller's "Cost Index." Sorensen also provides an estimate of the per cent of the

**FIGURE 2**  
**Special Education Gross Per-Pupil Costs:**  
**Individual Programs and Program Means**

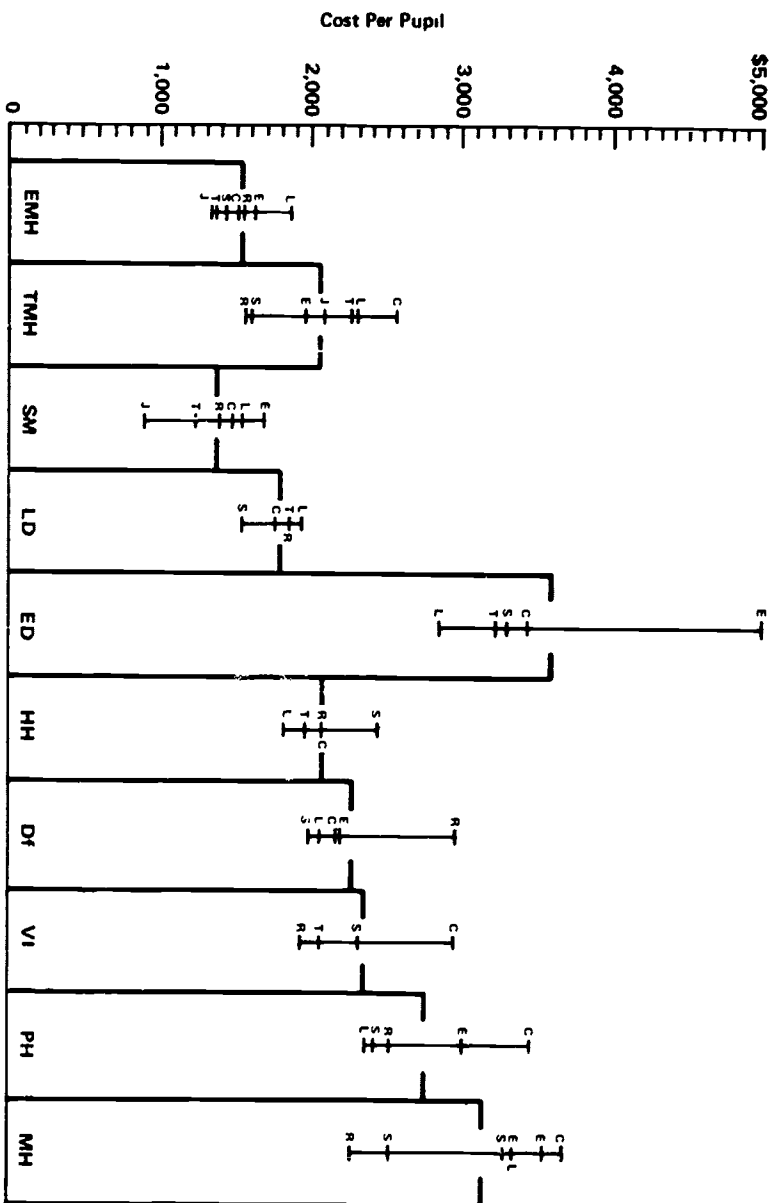


TABLE 3  
Per-Pupil Cost Analysis, 1969-70: Special Education Program Means

	ENR	TMR	SM	LD	ED	HR	DF	VI	PH	MR
Direct Instructional Expenses	\$ 846	\$1,272	\$ 689	\$1,162	\$1,698	\$1,402	\$1,594	\$1,694	\$1,500	\$1,761
Special Education Supportive Services	357	455	348	313	1,565	363	340	345	927	1,036
General Administration and Operations	315	315	320	299	324	299	331	285	331	336
Gross Cost	1,518	2,042	1,357	1,774	3,587	2,064	2,265	2,324	2,758	3,133
Special Education Reimbursement	462	654	384	497	1,314	720	855	802	934	1,038
Net Cost	1,056	1,388	973	1,277	2,273	1,344	1,410	1,522	1,824	2,095
System Average	884	884	899	879	907	879	938	846	938	926
Gross Ratio	1.72	2.31	1.51	2.02	3.95	2.35	2.41	2.75	2.94	3.38
% Gross Paid by Reimbursement	30.4	32.0	28.3	28.0	36.6	35.0	37.7	34.5	33.9	33.1
% Excess Cost Paid by Reimbursement	72.9	56.4	83.8	56.0	49.0	74.2	66.4	54.2	51.3	47.0
Net Ratio	1.19	1.57	1.08	1.45	2.51	1.53	1.50	1.80	1.94	2.26
Program ADA	296.5	54.7	178.1	111.5	12.7	19.0	55.7	22.6	18.3	8.9
Teacher:Pupil Ratio	1:11.2	1:9.0	1:13.4	1:9.3	1:5.3	1:6.9	1:6.6	1:6.2	1:8.0	1:6.6

total cost of each kind of special education program and the "excess cost," or differential, between the special and regular education costs which are paid by the state's special education reimbursement. Note how the "Teacher: Pupil Ratio" reported in the last line varies with the "Gross Ratio"; the fewer the number of children per teacher, the higher the cost index.

Since both of these studies selected only "quality, comprehensive" special education programs, the differences between districts in the cost-per-pupil for the same type of program must be seen as a real problem in determining what a "quality" program *should* cost for purposes of state reimbursement of the cost differential (or "excess costs") of special education. If average dollar amounts are selected, or average cost index, per program, some districts will be receiving more state special education aid than they actually spend on their program, while others will be receiving only a portion of their extra costs for special education programs.

### **Prevalence of Exceptional Children**

An added problem in determining the appropriate dollar figure or cost index ratio as it applies to exceptional children in state reimbursement programs is the fact of unequal distribution of handicapped within the school-aged population. Some handicapping conditions are related to socioeconomic conditions. School districts in the suburbs with housing codes such that only a relatively narrow range of say, upper-middle and lower-upper social groups can live therein, would have a larger-than-average prevalence of children needing special education services for trainable mentally handicapped and for the gifted. Conversely, school districts with a high proportion of lower socioeconomic families should expect to need a larger-than-average number of services for educable mentally handicapped children, children with speech handicaps and school social worker services.

In all but the largest city school districts (of 1/2 million enrollment or more), the general rule to apply is that the lower the prevalence of the handicapping condition, the greater the variance between districts in terms of the numbers needing services. For example, a family with two deaf school-aged children moving into a school system of 1,000 enrollment might provide that system with its first deaf children needing special education services in 10 years or more.

Another complicating factor in the prevalence of handicapped children per school system is the history of special education services provided by that district. For the past 30 years we have witnessed the development of a practice of selective migration of families with handicapped children. Again, stated as a general rule, the more severe the handicapping condition (and thus the lower the prevalence of the condition and the higher the costs of the special education program), the more likely it is that the family will move into a district with an established program of special education for such children. If the cost differential between special and regular education is not fully borne by the state, it can be seen what an unequal burden such a special education service places on the local taxpayers of school systems with high-quality special education programs.

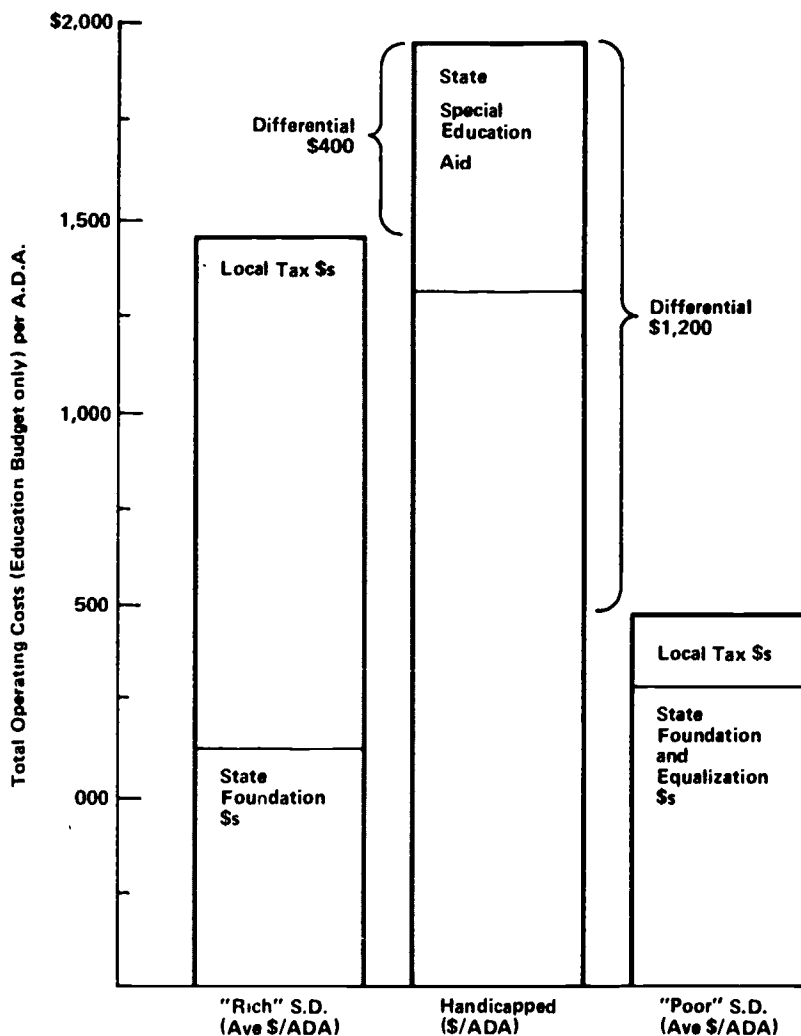
### **State Reimbursement of Special Education Costs**

The higher costs of special education services for exceptional children and the unequal distribution of children needing such services among school systems dictates some form of state payment to school districts for these higher costs. The first problem to be considered is the relationship between the state's program for funding the regular education program and the state plan for reimbursement of the special education costs.

The graph depicting the cost-per-pupil for a "rich" and "poor" school district is illustrative of Illinois districts in 1971-72. Actually the range in elementary districts for that year was \$561 to \$2,242. Typically, the rich district receives a portion of its costs from the state in "foundation aid," while the poor districts receive an additional "equalization aid" amount to partially account for the difference in ability to provide education dollars through local taxation—usually based on the assessed valuation of the real property in the district.

The bar in the middle represents the cost of a special education program for a handicapped child. State laws and regulations will mandate many aspects of the increased costs, such as small pupil/teacher ratio. Thus, for a "rich" district to provide such a program, the differential is only some \$400 over the cost of educating the nonhandicapped child, while the poor district experiences a differential of some \$1,200. Assuming the state's plan of reimbursement of special education differential costs is a

**FIGURE 3**  
**Special Education Differential Costs in Hypothetical**  
**"Rich" and "Poor" School Districts\***



\*This graph was developed from materials drawn from the *Illinois Public School Financial Statistics*, Circular Series A, No. 322, Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

fixed one, such as the \$5,000 per professional worker plan in Illinois, the state's special education aid would more than cover the "excess" costs in the rich district, but only about half of the \$1,200 differential for the poor district. Thus, the rich get richer, while the poor get poorer, as the portion of the \$1,200 differential not paid for by the state must come from the local tax dollar in the poor district, where such dollars are too few to provide half the dollars spent on the child in the rich district.

It appears that several states have moved to reduce the wide variance in education dollars per child between school districts. (See Stauffer, A.C., *Major School Finance Changes in 1973*, Report No. 40, Department of Research and Information Services, Education Commission of the States, Denver, Colo., June 8, 1973.) District power equalization will serve to correct many of the problems associated with equitable special education reimbursement. It must be remembered, however, that considerable differences will still exist between the costs of various programs, as well as within the same type of program. To what extent the differences reflected in the data presented from the Rossmiller and Sorensen studies were effected by the general per-pupil cost differentials is unknown. Further data will need to be gathered and studied in states that have adopted education financing plans which reduce the differences in expenditures per child between districts.

### **Special Education Financing Goal**

If each state is to reach the point where every school-aged child is receiving the best possible education in accordance with his needs, we will need to develop a program of financing special education programs sufficiently flexible in nature so as to provide opportunities for quality special education programs to be developed throughout the state, regardless of variance in population density, prevalence of handicapping condition, wealth of district, etc. Such special education financing must be carefully related to the general state school financing plan so as to prevent under- or overpayment of cost differentials of the special education programs.



## **SELECTED PANEL PRESENTATIONS\***

### **FACTORS WHICH COMPLICATE OR FACILITATE FISCAL PLANNING FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE HANDICAPPED**

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\*Although it was impossible to include the remarks of all those individuals who participated as panel members in the HACHE regional conference series, we would like at this time to acknowledge their valuable contributions. A complete list of panel participants can be found on page 82 of this publication.

*The Honorable Pete Turnham  
State Representative  
Auburn, Ala.*

As a citizen of Alabama and a member of a legislature that has made some significant strides on behalf of the handicapped, I consider it a pleasure to be asked to talk with such a distinguished audience as represented at this conference. Perhaps together, at this conference, you as interested and knowledgeable citizens and I, a legislator, can look not only backwards but to the future, with respect to where we want our efforts to count most for the handicapped.

By and large, I am a positive man and try to accept challenges, such as this talk, in a positive manner. Much like a legislative friend of mine who, while being up in years, decided to take upon himself a very young wife. One of his colleagues went to him and said, "Charlie, you know this could be fatal, don't you?" To which Charlie replied, "Well, if she dies; she just dies!"

I hope this is the kind of positive attitude I show on this occasion, because those of us who are in the thick of the fight on behalf of the handicapped child are stuck with each other. You—the businessman, the college professor, the parent, the public educator—and I and my friends in legislatures the country over all share the same piece of "educational" real estate, and I firmly believe that those of us in education, regardless of our role, whether we have "sold out" to the establishment as the kids would say, can, need and must be useful and helpful to one another where the education, training and treatment of the handicapped of our states is concerned.

Progress for the handicapped child has in the past, and will in the future, depend upon successful communication, good information and hard work between the so-called establishment and the community. Each, as John Newton said, "must stand on the shoulders of those who have gone before."

As my friends in the Alabama Legislature, the office of the governor and the citizens of our state have struggled to make the lives of our handicapped citizens more meaningful, and after a number of years of working with the various groups, it seems to me the following processes can be noted.

The extent to which a public school system, a parent organization, or legislative, judicial or executive branch of government can develop quality programs for handicapped children, youth and adults, is dependent to no small degree upon the knowledge, support and working relationships between the groups working to bring about change.

Over the years as I have worked with various groups to establish programs for the handicapped, I have found three prevailing attitudes:

1. *Let us alone attitude.* Here the parents, schools, organizations, legislatures and funding agencies have all said or implied: "Here is either the child, the physical plant, the law or the money. Take either and leave us alone—we don't want anything more to do with that handicapped child."
2. *We sell you attitude.* In this approach, each of the agencies, the schools, the institutions, the legislatures and the systems all try to sell one another and the parents a bill of goods on the fact that we have done our share and have the best programs for the handicapped in the country. These people play the numbers game rather than the commitment game.
3. *We work together attitude.* This philosophy, which is sweeping the country and which I would encourage you to pursue, is predicated on the fact that parents don't have all the answers, the businessmen don't have all the answers, educators don't have all the answers, the physicians don't have all the answers and certainly state agency officials or legislatures don't have all the answers. Rather, we enhance our programs and improve our effectiveness by working cooperatively with one another. In this type of a relationship all of those agencies, groups or individuals concerned must, I think, show a spirit of mutualism as opposed to a spirit of individualism; show a spirit of innovation with respect to what can be done in funding and programming for the handicapped, rather than the usual traditionalism; and show a school environment which allows students, parents, teachers and community to be creative rather than fatalistic. Of too many of our programs, it can be said you don't have to try anything new, just something different.

We must in all of these efforts to provide for the handicapped see that those who stand to profit most—the students, the parents and the communities—become active agents rather than passive recipients.

As we worked to develop statewide kindergartens in Alabama, an effort (which was successful), and as I have worked with other agencies, it seems to me that as you leave here to develop more adequate programs and supporting funds you will need to:

1. Draw upon those groups in the state or region which have demonstrated a favorable attitude toward improvements for the handicapped. This does include the general assemblies.
2. Change the attitude of those unpredictable and usually unfavorable groups, agencies or individuals.
3. Organize and influence all favorable groups into action.
4. Minimize the resistance of the unredeemable, unfavorable groups or individuals.

Let me hasten to say, however, that the approach to more financing, more programs or more anything for the handicapped (and this includes changing the attitudes of government agencies and legislative bodies) should not be predicated on selling the legislators or anyone a bill of goods about the handicapped, but rather on the fact that our efforts will be most successful when we demonstrate to everyone the power of special education, training and treatment to improve the lives of these children and youth.

One of your functions, and certainly one of mine, is to raise the level of understanding of how programs for the handicapped should and can work. This kind of knowledge will generate the will to obtain results.

Your presence at this conference is an indication that the public, at all levels, does care about what is happening to the handicapped in our various states. You are interested enough to be willing to pay the cost now. It is clear that you realize that we either pay the cost now or pay the cost plus the ante when we wait too long and do nothing.

There are those who would say that the public should not in any way try to influence the schools and other institutional programs. Various reasons are given: "Professionals are trained for their jobs. They are experts. The public knows nothing about special education and should not try to interfere with it. The public does not interfere in the development of medicine."

This point of view is short-sighted. Public education, unlike any other profession, is the creation of the public. Schools were

originally established at the instigation of laymen and in the interests of the public welfare. They were first run by laymen. The schools are public in their methods of financing. It is unrealistic to allow those who hold the purse strings to be ignorant of the ends they serve. The schools interact with the total public at some point, either as pupils, parents or as employers of pupils.

Another reason for excluding the public is often stated: "The public is too ignorant of the newer techniques in special education to participate in planning them." But much of better school practice is common sense, once the principles are understood. Members of the public have shown themselves to possess exceptional vision on what schools should be doing for exceptional children. Men and women whose vision has participated in creating modern technology, merchandising, modern science and collective social action can also be relied on to count heavily in creating a more modern program of education. Men and women who daily in their shops and stores and offices must meet and work with others, young and old, assaying their capacities, putting them on new jobs, observing their progress or instructing them often in new business and technical procedures, can also be relied on to offer much to the planning phases of education.

It is not necessary that all citizens understand all the minutiae of modern educational technology. Those truly are the problems of the professional person. The public need understand only enough to give them a picture of the full power of education. Then, through what they expect the schools to do for exceptional children, through the demands which they make on administrators, through the questions which they ask teachers, through their contacts with legislators, through the suggestions which they make in informal planning meetings such as this, the influence of their interest will be felt in the schools. Wherever public participation and cooperation have been a positive influence in communities, the schools have been made better and special education programs have flourished.

## Conclusions

And so it is. If we are to assume our place in the sun, we must be like the person spoken of when the writer of children's books was asked what makes a good child's book. She replied:

"It has earth, dirt, rocks, grass; something which the child can rest his eyes on.

But a good book also has wind, sky, clouds, stars and moons—in order that the gaze of the child's eyes might be raised upward."

As a challenge to you and to all who attend this conference to get on with the task of educating our children, I would ask each of you to stand up and be counted. It has been said that "some believe there is nothing one man or woman can do against the enormous array of the world's ills." Yet many of the world's great movements of thought and action, have flowed from the work of a single person.

- A young monk began the Protestant Revolution.
- A young general extended an empire from Macedonia to the ends of the earth.
- A young woman reclaimed the territory of France.
- A young Italian explorer discovered the new world.
- A 32-year-old Thomas Jefferson proclaimed that all men are created equal.

These men moved the world, and so can we all.

The future does not belong to those who are content with today, apathetic toward common problems and their fellow man alike, timid and fearful in the face of new ideas and bold projects.

Our future, Ted Kennedy said, "may lie beyond our vision, but it is not completely beyond our control. It is the shaping impulse of America that neither fate nor nature nor the irresistible tides of history, but the work of our own hands, matched to reason and principle, that will determine our destiny."

As Robert Kennedy said in many parts of this nation:

"Some men see things as they are and say why. I dream things that never were and say—Why not?"

*The Honorable Michael J. Daly*  
*State Representative*  
*Boston, Mass.*

Last year the Massachusetts Legislature approved comprehensive new legislation, co-filed by Speaker of the House David Bartley and me, which aims at providing quality education for all children, regardless of their special needs. The new law takes effect on Sept. 1, 1974. I would like to briefly explain the major provisions of this legislation so that you may better understand its fiscal implications for the state. Before Chapter 766 was signed into law, cities and towns only had an obligation to educate "educable" children. We honestly do not know how many children in Massachusetts have received little or no education because of this archaic provision in our state law. Children were educated only when they were slotted into a specific legislative category. Massachusetts had different legislative mandates determined by statutory label. Thus we had one law for emotionally disturbed kids, another for children with dyslexia, another for the retarded and so forth. To complicate matters, the level of state aid for children with special needs was dependent on the statutory disability. The state paid all of the education costs for a deaf child, 50 per cent for the mentally retarded or emotionally disturbed. Chapter 766 seeks to remedy all of these inequities and shortcomings.

The new law sets up one category—children with special needs—in place of the stigmatizing and dysfunctional statutory labels. It requires cities and towns to conduct a census to locate kids with special needs and requires an evaluation by a team of experts who must develop a program designed to meet the special needs of a particular child. The law outlines 11 program options ranging from an hour or two of special help a week all the way to instruction in residential schools. And finally, the reimbursement formula has been completely changed. The change makes Chapter 766 an expensive piece of legislation, its high cost a reflection on how little we have really done for children with special needs.

Under the old law, school committees did not have to contribute to the expense of children with special needs within their communities who were not attending public schools. Cities and towns had no fiscal responsibility for kids placed in institutions. It is my firm belief that cities and towns have an obligation to pay



the per-pupil cost for all the kids in their towns. The funding formula for Chapter 766 reflects this concept.

The formula for financing special education was changed after the initial draft of the legislation was written. Both drafts require cities and towns to pay for the cost of regular education. The state then picks up 100 per cent of the excess cost for special education.

Let us assume that the average per-pupil expenditure in town X is \$1,000, and that the cost for a child with special needs is \$1,500. The town will be responsible for that first \$1,000 under the regular school formula for state aid to cities and towns for public education. But the state will pay for the extra \$500 for a child with special needs.

In response to recent trends stimulated by *Serano* and *Rodriguez*, the funding formula was further revised by adding an equalizing mechanism. Recognizing that a wealthy community could naturally spend money more easily than a poor community, the formula was rewritten to provide state reimbursement for special education only up to 110 per cent of the statewide average for a particular program, thus guaranteeing that all communities will receive an equitable portion of the state dollar.

It would be less than honest not to say that this change in the formula was also an admission that our state revenues are finite. Given that fact, we wanted to be certain that no one city or town could "bankrupt" the state with unnecessarily expensive programs.

That, briefly, is that the new law is about. What will be the fiscal impact of Chapter 766, where will the money come from, how can we rationally plan for Sept. 1, 1974?

As the special education bill made its way through the house and senate last year, we spent a lot of time developing cost projections. With the help of a computer at the department of education, we determined that the cost to the state for Year 1 of implementation would be approximately \$14 million. We projected that the cost would continue to increase for several years until that point when the financial savings resulting from early evaluation and treatment would become evident, thus creating a downward shift and, eventually, a leveling of costs, admittedly higher than where we are today.

In terms of a 10-year game plan that sounds great, but how do you transfer that optimism to the 351 cities and towns of Massachusetts which this month are developing their budgets for next year? A lot of people are just now learning what the fiscal impact of 766 is going to be. Cities and towns are saying the increased cost will mean higher tax rates.

What does all of this mean? It means that a lot of kids—more than we ever dreamed—have not been receiving an education. It means that a lot of people will be fighting and kicking to prevent the implementation of Chapter 766. It may possibly mean that the cost of special education will dip into the pool of money normally used for regular education. (Under Massachusetts law, special education is reimbursed *before* regular education.)

But does it mean that we must, because of the financial pressures, abandon our goal of educating all our kids? I don't think so. A federal court in Pennsylvania has ordered that state to provide an education for *all* the kids in that state. Parents in Massachusetts who for years have been frustrated in their attempts at providing their children with education will be waiting to see if 766 is implemented. If it isn't, we can expect a lot of court cases.

By the time Chapter 766 takes effect we will have had two years to prepare for the program planning and financial impact of the new law. No court would have given us so much time.

We have already begun to investigate ways of providing "up-front" money for Year 1 of implementation. We have already begun to examine ways of meeting the increased costs which 766 will create for both municipalities and the state.

On the basis of budgets now being developed across the state, we will have concrete data on the needs, incidences and expenses that we never would have had without the law. All of this will help in easing the fiscal planning that lies ahead.

It will not be easy; it will not be inexpensive. But we cannot turn our backs any longer on those whom we have ignored for so long.

*Martin W. Essex*  
*Superintendent of Public Instruction*  
*Columbus, Ohio*

I am optimistic and enthusiastic about the advancement of education for our handicapped children. The body of knowledge for habilitation and teaching is larger now than ever, and growing. The number of competent professionals in the teaching, therapy and, particularly, management areas reflects this growth in skill and understanding. The future is bright!

Despite our progress, however, formidable barriers confront us. These complexities are far more difficult to resolve than those met in most of the other areas of education.

As we analyze these complexities and their possible solutions, it is appropriate to reflect on our accomplishments. In less than a decade, our progress toward habilitating and educating handicapped youngsters is a success story in the same American tradition that raised a barefoot plainsman to the Presidency and put astronauts on the moon. These strides give ample cause for optimism:

- Parents today are blessed with a higher level of education and improved understanding of the reasons for the various forms of handicaps. The traditional self-blame or guilt factor no longer seriously hinders an open approach to habilitation.
- Our parent organizations are committed to identifying and encouraging needed special education services.
- We live in the most humane period in the history of man. There is a growing commitment to adjust or alleviate inequality and suffering.
- Ours is the most affluent society in all history. We can afford to apply the best knowledge and care in man's history.
- Contrary to fears of a decade or so ago, our mobile society fosters unity among strangers who have similar interests.
- Our urban society, in contrast to the agrarian or small-craft economy, limits the availability of the family to care for and employ the services of the youngster who has a physical or behavioral difficulty.
- Our humaneness is buttressed by economic reasons; an extra investment frequently permits the handicapped youngster to assume independence and full citizenship privileges, to be an economic asset rather than a liability.

The fiscal barriers must be understood so that they can be overcome.

First is the imperative to realign all school districts into a statewide geographic pattern to serve the varied incidences of handicaps. Having completed this task in Ohio, we know that it is difficult but possible. In addition, the concurrent Herculean task of identifying each handicapped youngster requires great commitment.

A second barrier has been the difficulty of balancing the funding responsibility successfully between the state and local district. Recent gains in state funding have been exhilarating. For example, in Ohio, state funding per unit has been more than tripled in recent years.

Also encouraging is a move toward the same level of state funding for all districts rather than varied rates of state assistance based on the local tax base. In this concept, the primary obligation for funding rests with the state government; this more nearly assures a program which will provide each youngster with the services he needs. This movement is particularly relevant to the large cities where the poor are concentrated and which traditionally have a higher per-pupil tax base than the surrounding districts. Due to their concentration of population, the larger cities will continue to serve great numbers of handicapped youngsters and should be encouraged by state funding to do so.

One of the difficult barriers has been funding construction of suitable facilities. Traditionally, handicapped children have been assigned to buildings in which leftover space was available, or to buildings which were growing obsolete.

Two approaches have exhibited some merit. One includes a factor of capital depreciation or funds for replacement in the tuition charged to neighboring districts. The second is a law which permits the construction of facilities cooperatively.

A third barrier which appears to be rapidly diminishing is the urgency of an effective system of transportation. Due to the high risk inherent in the transportation of handicapped youngsters, private transportation services must be assisted with a form of liability insurance at reasonable cost. Certainly, we have moved a long way in recent years to the design of vehicles and buildings

which facilitate the safe and unencumbered movement of our special education youngsters. Due to low incidences and to sparsity of population in some areas, unusual arrangements are required. These arrangements may be costly, but it is a part of the humane responsibility of society to see that each youngster has optimum opportunity for his habilitation and education.

Another of the barriers has been the preparation and availability of competent supervisory personnel. Rapid progress is evident in this area. However, it is imperative that such persons be accepted and willing to serve more than one district for low-incidence handicaps.

There is encouraging progress in dealing with the fiscal barriers involved in the establishment of consultation and service centers. Presently, 15 such centers are in operation in Ohio. Each year, the capacity to serve and the quality of services have been improving. These 15 centers have full-time directors who report to the administrators of the districts served. Hence, maximum local direction is preserved.

The barrier of short teacher supply will soon be overcome. Very able young people and competent persons whose children are now in school are in the preparation patterns. This new flow of personnel should equate with demand in a very few years.

The fiscal barriers to inservice growth or renewal are beginning to receive appropriate resolution. The Ohio Department of Education has established a center responsible for developing suitable materials for faculty growth. The legislature has authorized an appropriation for this purpose.

Another area of prime priority is employment of coordinator-counselor-teacher personnel who take on specific responsibility for assisting the handicapped youngster to function effectively in the mainstream of school life. The counselor-coordinator-teacher has specialized equipment within his room but commits most of his energies toward appropriate counseling such as course selection and generating understanding with the classroom teacher.

Parent relations are also an element of importance in this service. Parents are particularly helpful with the sight-impaired, hearing-impaired and EMR youngsters. They are becoming more adept also at providing understanding, patience and skill with emotional or behavioral problems.

Perhaps equally fundamental is convincing legislative and local tax authorities that cooperative school-directed employment learning experiences are vital. The employer must have an awareness of the handicap and the patience to make adjustments. Unless the handicapped youngster receives the opportunity for cooperative employment experience at a relatively early age, lack of confidence may generate a lifetime of helplessness.

Societal awareness of employment-associated habilitation continues to challenge us. We can be pleased, however, to note that last year in our state, EMR youngsters earned more than \$5 million in cooperative employment. A survey of the youngsters who had left the schools in the prior year confirmed that 83 per cent of them were still employed.

It is this kind of encouraging success that will overcome the fiscal barriers. High-quality programs permit everyone—the handicapped youngster and society—to benefit.

*Theodore Drain*  
*Director, Division for Exceptional Children*  
*Raleigh, N.C.*

Fiscal planning seems to be an area special educators face with much apprehension. Securing money to operate the kinds of programs and to provide the types of services we know to be necessary to give exceptional children their equal rights to education has never been an easy task.

However, in the last decade, national emphasis on aid to the handicapped, legal demands for education programming and the loud voices of pressure groups have done much to loosen federal, state and local purse strings. As a result many opportunities are available.

But as all of us here know, we're just beginning to scratch the surface in providing adequate services. So many needs are still with us—early identification, diagnosis, evaluation, preschool programs—the list is endless. To provide comprehensive services, we must find methods to simplify the procedures and remove the barriers to fiscal planning.

North Carolina is eager to find solutions just as you are and the states you represent. For a moment I'd like to share with you funding patterns in North Carolina for programs for exceptional children.

Under the state teacher allotment procedure, exceptional child programs receive 2,650 teaching positions, to be distributed to local education agencies on a formula basis. The state pays 100 per cent of the teacher's pay, based on a state salary scale. Per-pupil allotment for supplies and materials is \$6.75 for all students—regular, gifted or handicapped. Trainable programs are financed by grants-in-aid to local units in the amount of \$1,049 per child per year based on average daily membership.

A state law on the use and operation of school buses permits public school transportation funds to be used for transportation needs of special education students. In addition to insuring transportation on regular routes, the law allows local education agencies to operate special vehicles or contract transportation to individuals, such as parents, taxi cab companies or private bus companies.

The 1973 General Assembly made two major breakthroughs in funding. First, funds were appropriated for 62 education expense grants at a maximum amount of \$2,000 each for school-age multihandicapped or severely handicapped children unable to secure adequate educational programming in the public schools of North Carolina. The grants may be used in private or out-of-state facilities that offer an approved program.

Secondly, a statewide learning disabilities program was initiated with an appropriation of \$865,000 to pay for state administration, 50 categorical teaching positions, inservice training, pilot centers and one very interesting component—\$500 for each of the 50 teaching positions to be used for materials, equipment and/or psychological services.

This is where we are now. To move forward we must find answers to our original dilemma—how to facilitate fiscal planning.

### Factors That Facilitate

1. *Comprehensive state plan.* A major requirement, I believe, is a comprehensive state plan of services which defines the role of each agency serving exceptional children and receiving state funds for its operation. Such a plan eliminates confusion of roles, fragmentation of services and disputes over "areas of jurisdiction." It eliminates different groups taking different approaches to dealing with similar problems. It better facilitates programs for children that depend on finance for personnel and manpower needs.
2. *Special education as a top priority budget item.* A second factor requires a good public relations job with the head of your state education agency and with the budget division. If programming for the handicapped is a package that has to be sold to the state legislature, it must be a top-priority item of the state education agency. We must be able to convince our fellow educators of the impact components of special programming will have on the total education picture and thereby make funding requests a department priority, not just a section priority.
3. *Cooperative planning among local education agencies.* Another facilitating factor is cooperative programming among local education agencies. In areas of low-density population where children who have hearing impairments or



who fall in the trainable range are few in number, multiunit programming provides services yet cuts down on operational costs.

4. *Societal changes.* Other facilitating factors have been created by our changing society in the past few years.

- The old stigma attached to children in special programs is gradually diminishing. There is more acceptance in school programs. Children are included in the mainstream of education, in jobs in the community. More emphasis on their abilities has made securing aid from all sources an easier task.
- Our society is more affluent today. It can and will provide financial aid, as evidenced by the increase in federal and state funding.
- There is a more humanitarian attitude. Society now wants to provide services to all types of individuals needing them.
- Strong parent groups and others with common problems are doing an excellent job of informing the public of the different kinds of handicapping conditions and of instructional needs and alternatives.

What would facilitate fiscal planning most would be accurate data on incidence of handicapping conditions within the states or areas we operate and on actual extra costs of special education programming. But, herein lies one of the greatest barriers to planning.

### Factors That Complicate

1. *Lack of data:* Legislators and fiscal planning agents want to know how many children we need to serve, what the cost will be and how much good it is going to do. Lack of information—hard data—is the most crippling complication we face.
- *Incidence figures.* National incidence figures used today are outdated and do not apply to all areas of the country. For example, the 2.3 per cent figure given to mental retardation does not break down EMRs and TMRs. In North Carolina we are already serving numbers far in excess of that figure in programs for EMRs alone.

We need to devise a system to identify handicapping conditions in geographical areas of the state, rural and urban areas, so that we may project not only the needs of the state as a whole but for differing areas. Environmental factors may cause greater incidence of deaf-blindness or retardation in one area than in another. But this is what we need to know.

- *Costs.* What are the costs? We can project costs for teachers' salaries and for administration, but we have not been able to give exact costs for operating a learning disabilities program, a home-bound program or a program for the mentally retarded.

Some states, such as Florida, are going in the direction of weighting programs for exceptional children in an effort to derive a more accurate cost-projection figure. State reimbursement is determined on a formula basis which includes such factors as weekly case load, weekly instructional hours, base student cost and a cost factor for education given to each of the handicapping conditions.

Excess costs need to be defined. Naturally, it costs more to operate a class of 12 to 20 children than a class for 25 to 30. It costs more to operate a school bus transporting physically handicapped children who require wheelchairs than it does to operate one transporting 30 children who require no accompanying equipment.

- *Accountability.* What success can we measure in programs already in operation? Do we have follow-up studies of children completing special programs or moving out of special programs into the mainstream? Do they find some measure of success as a result of these programs? Answers to these questions are what we need for education planning as well as fiscal planning.

2. *Built-in barriers in funding:* There are also built-in barriers in the funding for programs. In North Carolina, state monies are used for teachers' salaries, some materials and transportation. Barriers to planning exist in terms of what the monies *can't* be used for. They can't be used for:

- Equipment
- Physical therapy
- Medical examinations
- Psychological examinations
- Board and lodging of children who might need to attend a school in another public school unit in North Carolina
- Tutorial service in school or for home-bound needs in excess of the regular home-bound teacher's load
- Home-to-school telephone hookups
- And most importantly, paraprofessionals

Federal funding has provided the icing on the cake by enabling units to provide in special projects some of the services I have just mentioned. However, since federal monies cannot be used to replace programs, only to enhance them, funding needs to be structured to compliment in the best ways possible a total state program.

3. *Predicting availability of new teachers:* To design quality programs, planners need to know the numbers of trained teachers that will be produced in years to come. In many states there is a lack of communication between teacher training institutions and state education agencies concerning a realistic prediction of the availability of teachers and, in some cases, the actual type of training that is needed.

If teaching positions must be filled with untrained or inadequate personnel, education agencies then are burdened with extra costs for inservice sessions in order to build and maintain quality programs.

## Summary

In this brief time period, I have tried to outline some of the facilitating as well as complicating factors to fiscal planning. The most positive step we can make now to insure an easier job in this area is to work diligently to provide information that will remove the barriers.

As a state director and a protector of the rights of children in special programs, I feel the interchange of ideas here will serve as a catalyst in our job of planning appropriate education programs for exceptional children.

*Harry Wugalter  
Chief, Public School Finance Division  
Santa Fe, N.M.*

During my visitations to schools, I have made it a practice to ask who is in charge of special education. Almost invariably the director of instruction of a large school district will turn to an aide and ask if the responsible person is available. It becomes rather apparent that special education is not really part of the total education organization but an auxiliary service. This relationship is also identified when visiting a small school system and finding out that the superintendent knows little about this special education program and has to call upon the special education teacher to explain the service to me. Since we are to discuss factors which complicate or facilitate planning for the educationally handicapped, I believe the fact that special education is not treated as part of the total education program causes a number of problems.

First of all, there's a tendency to place the primary funding reliance upon the state and, as in our state, underwrite categorical programs. This approach tends to create direct lines of communication between the state special education head and the various employes of a school district, oftentimes independent of either the board, superintendent, director of instruction or principal. Since dollars become categorical in nature, the program elements, as translated into expenditures, assume a uniformity that may not always fit the particular case.

For example, if a formula provides a specific number of dollars per pupil in a self-contained special education class (\$997), and the teacher's salary, benefits and other directly related expenses utilize but two-thirds of a class allocation, the district is encouraged to spend the remaining part of the allocation even though, upon close examination, it is unnecessary. A case in point would be a school district with less than 300 enrollment that spends \$16 per pupil for general school supplies for all of its enrollment, but in the special education section, due to the employment of a new teacher, finds a surplus in its allocation and budgets over \$60 per pupil for school supplies. Privately, the superintendent will state that this is ridiculous; however, he doesn't seem to have any other alternative and publicly proclaims that this expenditure is necessary for items that are difficult for him to justify.

A further complication of superimposing programs upon a school district is the erratic cost differentials—such as the state providing \$997 for a retarded but educable child and a similar amount for a home-bound student with a broken leg. This approach has caused some special education proponents to state that it takes the same number of dollars to underwrite the cost of an educable retarded child as it does for one who is gifted.

For some reason or other we are led to believe that any time a child has an I.Q. of over 130, he requires a special room and a special teacher because he is supposedly maladjusted. If you were to meet privately with youngsters in a high school who fall in the gifted category, you would often find that they do not have disabilities or learning difficulties, nor are they maladjusted, but are perfectly able to cope with the regular program and their only demand is for a greater challenge. This does not mean 64 algebraic problems because a youngster is good in math, but perhaps an enriched afternoon through the visit of a resource person whose approach to any particular discussion, such as the energy crisis or the meaning of the balance of payments, would be stimulating. Interestingly enough, many of these resource people are available for free. As a matter of fact, many of our senior citizens who are now retired long to use their experience in this manner.

If we look closely at our faculty we might discover an outstanding teacher who would be willing to work with a group of youngsters after school or at any convenient time for an additional increment. We do this for band teachers, coaches and ticket collectors, but have not yet openly declared that we can do this for the gifted children.

### **Empathy Most Important**

Perhaps one of the most important attributes one can find in an individual who has dedicated his or her life to the area of special education is empathy. For some reason or other, we believe that this attribute can only be brought forth after a master's or doctor's degree has been bestowed upon an individual. A program for trainables that requires basic but compassionate repetitions does not often require a \$12,000-instructor. I believe in the TV commercial that is generally shown between football games that says, "What we need, money can't buy." I wonder how many more children with severe handicaps could be given a few bright

moments in their lives if we would use less expensive paraprofessionals who have a love for children and who can provide the basic training once prescribed by more knowledgeable diagnosticians?

Not too long ago, while visiting a class of severely handicapped children that was conducted in a swimming pool, a marvelous experience was evident. Children in life jackets were smiling and enjoying the water, and in the midst of the splashing I was told that one of the young men who was chiefly responsible for this program was a Mennonite who received room, board and \$15 a month for his efforts. It's hard to find dedication like that today, isn't it?

### **Resource Room Problems**

Another item that should require your attention is our recent innovation—the resource room. As originally intended, the state would provide \$11,963 per approved program, and children with learning disabilities within a regular classroom would utilize the service as prescribed. I have found that although the resource room's function was to provide a service that focuses upon and corrects an identified disability that causes learning difficulties, many school instructors use it as a remedial component or a means to improve achievement. This vital service should be examined carefully and its purpose resolved before we find resource rooms duplicating the many special remedial programs now in existence.

I would also like to mention the possibility that in a number of cases the state support might be overfunding resource rooms that have been in operation more than one year because they receive the same allocation as those just beginning, and the same dollars for hardware are available in the second year as in the first. This tends to cause a district to spend all it has even if it means creating needs.

### **"Special" or Regular?**

Another interesting question relative to special education I have found in my visitations is whether or not the term "special" itself has a negative effect upon children who might profit from a particular education service. It's ironic that when the coach of the football team finds a need for a weight-lifting apparatus to develop

the muscles of some of his players, such a purchase is considered as a regular expense. On the other hand, if a piece of hardware is necessary to assist a youngster in overcoming a disability, it becomes "special" and he or she is singled out. Perhaps some thought should be given to eliminating the term "special" and considering the resource room opportunities, as well as other educationally oriented services for handicapped, as part of the regular program for all children.

Perhaps one of the most difficult factors to overcome in the planning and facilitating of the education of the handicapped is the apprehension of those deeply involved in special education that a noncategorical-approach might be detrimental to ongoing programs. Perhaps this is a carryover from the time that the public schools neglected children because they exhibited difficulties. The major thrust of those concerned appears to be a lack of confidence in the local boards of education and administration in using funds provided expressly for the purpose intended. This is a serious indictment. If we continue to fund special education on a categorical basis because there is insufficient faith in the local board of education's ability to meet the education needs of a segment of the pupil population, doubt is also cast upon its competence to administer the entire operation upon which the majority of the pupils depend for their educational opportunity.

What would happen if the parents of all of these youngsters demanded cash on the barrelhead or vouchers to be used as they desire? Recently, such comments have been emerging as the competition for the available dollar becomes much keener. It's not enough that we have to compete with higher education, health and welfare, and other necessary state services for the available dollar, but competition is becoming sharper within the education allocation itself. In New Mexico, for example, the state appropriation for special education has increased from \$3.4 million to \$8 million, or an increase of about 135 per cent in a four-year period, while at the same time the basic state appropriation for public school support increased by 10 per cent. At the same time our equalization appropriation increased by 330 per cent, spurred on by the Serrano-Rodriguez implications. There's no doubt that we have been paying attention to both critical areas; the demands for increased salaries and benefits are, however, causing competition for both the available dollar and the allocation within the education package itself.

## Lack of Continuity

One item that I believe is pertinent that tends to be elusive when we are discussing the special education requirements is the lack of program continuity and the failure of responsible agents to recognize services required for severely handicapped children later on in life. The emotional impact upon a legislative body is quite apparent when parents, whose children require unique services, make their demands heard. Many questions remain unanswered, and educators who see many implications of statutory requirements remain silent because an inquiry is viewed with hostility.

Parents of children who deserve the best we can offer are usually so pleased to have something happen that they tend to relax their efforts. It is not uncommon for ill-designed programs to emerge after the ribbon-cutting ceremony and the TV cameras have all been packed away after the grand opening. Programs that were touted as educationally sound may tend to become custodial in nature with hardly a murmur from the parent. What happens to these children in later life? I have seen some exceptionally fine vocational rehabilitation programs in operation, but generally there is a serious breakdown between the agencies that have the legal responsibility for such services.

That's why I believe strongly in the fact that special education must become part of the regular program and treated with the respect all elements of our education enterprise deserve and not as an oddball offshoot that can be silenced with appropriations. This can only be done if the needs and requirements are reviewed sensibly and we safeguard these children from needless exploitation. Inquiries about the problem and ideas for more reasonable alternatives should not be shunned by the special education advocates but, rather, accepted and each alternative reviewed in a businesslike manner with faith and confidence that everyone wants to provide our children with as many opportunities as possible to enhance their lives.



*Judy Schrag  
Idaho Outreach Coordinator  
Boise, Idaho*

The financing of elementary and secondary education in this nation has become a complex issue. During the last 20 years, the costs of education have increased 43 per cent faster than increases in the economy as a whole.<sup>1</sup> Factors contributing to these increased costs are, of course, school district organization and consolidation, urbanization, enrollment increases, curriculum development, application of technology to teaching, court-ordered integration, etc. These rising costs in education have revealed both the inadequacy and inequity of the present finance system. Senator James M. Waddell Jr., chairman of the HACHE Task Force, previously spoke to these issues of inadequacy and inequity of funding, as well as to alternatives being suggested to resolve the dilemma of school finance.

Confounding the complexity of general education finance are those problems of special education finance. Despite the number of litigation cases pointing toward the immediate urgency of providing education services to handicapped children, and despite the fact that over 80 per cent of the states have some form of mandatory special education, approximately 60 per cent of the nation's seven million handicapped citizens are still not presently receiving the services they need.

As states begin to develop comprehensive and quality programs to meet the needs of all handicapped children, at least six factors are evident which may act singly or together to facilitate appropriate planning to meet the needs of handicapped children, or they can result in barriers preventing the amelioration or elimination of the needs of handicapped children. These factors are:

### **Fiscal**

The reason most often given for unequal access to education opportunities for handicapped children is the higher costs. Higher expenditure differentials include those for salaries, facilities, transportation equipment and materials, space costs and supportive personnel. RossMiller and other researchers have shown that programs for handicapped pupils range from two to five times

greater than those for normal children. To offset the additional costs of serving handicapped children, states have established various fiscal support procedures that include six general categories: unit, weighting, percentage, personnel, straight sum or excess cost. Senator Waddell and previous speakers remarked on the advantages and disadvantages of each. The present special education finance patterns need to be assessed and analyzed in terms of their interaction with these factors. Also, the cost of special education programs varies greatly from school district to school district—depending on size of the district, quality of the programs, demographic status of the community, social values, use of educational and scientific technology, the numbers and kinds of handicapped children to serve, cost effect service models, etc.

### Informational

There is a lack of data on the numbers and kinds of handicapped children within a given state who must be educated, as well as a regional breakdown of this data and the relationship of this information to demographic (social and economical) data of local communities and the state as a whole. Several states such as Idaho have conducted handicapped child incidence or prevalence studies to determine the extent to the handicapped population. Idaho, for example, has found approximately 16 per cent handicapped, with considerable variance between regions.

There is also a lack of information regarding the financial resources and the resource configurations which are being applied to programs for handicapped children, as well as to other school district programs. School districts do not maintain fiscal or personnel records to allow for identification of program inputs—much less to relate such program inputs to program outputs. Educational output measured against fiscal input is often very subjective and confounded by many variables. Much has been written in recent literature articles on cost-effective programming and cost-benefit analysis in education. However, such analyses require that quantifiable data be available concerning both program inputs and program outputs. There is also a lack of experimental data on the learning process and its improvement or lack of such improvement with additional fiscal resources. The New York State Commission<sup>3</sup> and Davie (1972)<sup>4</sup> contend that additional dollars can make beneficial differences to education services.

There is a need for information research and development that will establish the extent of the handicapped population to be serviced, the money needed to serve this population, the manpower needed to provide such programs and the cost-effective service delivery models that can be established.

### **Legislative**

The presence of mandatory legislation may not necessarily result in quality services for handicapped children. Brown<sup>5</sup> reported that mandatory programs on the whole received more per-pupil support than from permissive programs. However, Sister Marie Thomas reported that other variables such as high wealth (per-capita personal income) interacted with strong legislation to result in more services to handicapped children.

### **Technological**

Technological and scientific advances have allowed for a better understanding of the learning process and the amelioration of specific handicaps. Further genetic engineering may result in discoveries within the chemistry of inheritance so that there may be fewer severely handicapped children to serve. The development of certain drugs may facilitate knowledge about the learning/memory processes of handicapped children. Future advancements may enable the regeneration of central nerve tissue once thought to be irreparably damaged.

### **Social**

The real cost of educating handicapped children is the value or priority placed by society or "consumers" of services. Parental or societal expectations for educating handicapped children vary greatly from region to region, state to state. The perceived needs of consumers in urban areas vary from those in rural areas. A vehicle must be established to gather ongoing feedback from consumers regarding present and future service needs of handicapped children.

## Administrative

Many school districts may not have an adequate number of various kinds of handicapped children to enable the development of effective education programs. Therefore, multidistricts cooperating to arrange for such education services may need to be established.

Because services for handicapped children must be on a continuum from preschool to vocational, interagency planning must be ongoing with a coordination in the flow of funds so that resulting services will not be duplicated or have serious gaps.

Another administrative consideration is the development of competent manpower to support the continuum of services in the life space of handicapped children—preschool, school-age, vocational and postschool levels.

## Conclusion

In order to meet the needs of all handicapped children implied in mandatory legislation as well as the constitutional rights of each handicapped individual, a careful analysis of the present and future needs of this population must be made in relation to the aforementioned interacting six factors. Careful manipulation of these factors may act to meet identified needs or act as a barrier to prevent the elimination or amelioration of such needs.

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## STATE PRIORITIES

One of the most important components of the HACHE regional conferences on finance was the interaction of individuals within state groups. As part of the conference activities, state groups were asked to identify major state priorities relating to the financing of education programs for the handicapped and to consider strategies for effectively dealing with problems or issues. Although there was considerable variation among the states in ranking problems of special education finance, a number of issues common to the states were identified from the state group reports. An analysis of these reports indicated that the following were identified as high-priority issues.

### Specific Finance Issues

State funding for special education programs should be given the same priority as other aspects of education finance.

The actual cost of special education services must be determined if an adequate and accurate data base is to be developed. Costs, as opposed to expenditures, are the basis for determining alternative formulas for special state aid distribution to the schools. Costs of special education must be studied in relation to the costs of general education.

The results of monies expended on special education services needed must be assessed if administrators, teachers and other education policymakers are to make appropriate decisions about the effectiveness of various education delivery systems. Levels of special education funding are generally inadequate.

The allocation of resources for the education of the handicapped must be studied in relation to services provided to the handicapped by other agencies, e.g., health, welfare and rehabilitation.

More information is needed concerning the federal-state partnership in the financing of programs for handicapped children, e.g., interpretation and implications of current and pending federal legislation for the states.

## **Problems and Issues Related to Special Education Finance**

### *Early Childhood Education for the Handicapped*

The opportunity for early childhood care should be made available to all families. Planning and program development for handicapped children should be carefully integrated with that for all other young children. Services for handicapped children should, to the greatest extent possible and to the extent that the child is adequately served, be an integral part of those general program services provided to all young children.

### *Program Development*

The education of handicapped children should be an integral part of all education services for children and adults. Whenever special programs are necessary in order to provide equal educational opportunities for the handicapped, they should be developed.

### *Interagency Cooperation*

Comprehensive statewide education delivery systems for the handicapped involve cooperation and coordination among all state agencies. States should be urged to take the initiative in developing interagency planning councils to meet this goal. Improved interagency cooperation calls for more effective communication among governors, legislators, administrators and the public. Effective means of interpreting the implications of mandatory special education legislation for school administrators and school board members need to be developed.

### *Needs Assessment Studies*

Many states need to develop needs assessment procedures and models to establish a data base for future planning involving leaders in government and education. Further, it is clear that the responsibility for determining the essentials of needs assessment studies should be shared by policymakers at both political and education levels.

### *Personnel Utilization*

There are insufficient numbers of qualified special education personnel to meet the demands of recently passed comprehensive

special education legislation. Colleges and universities, state education agencies and local school districts must work cooperatively in developing improved competency-based training programs for teachers.

### *The Courts*

Enlightened legislative/executive action at the state level is preferable to proceedings in the courts in providing adequate educational opportunities for the handicapped.

### *Mainstreaming*

Handicapped children should attend school with their nonhandicapped peers to whatever extent is compatible with their fullest development. However, each state should assure the availability and delivery of a full continuum of educational services ranging from the regular classroom to special education classes to the residential institution. The relative cost of each service option, e.g., special classes, resource rooms or other supplementary administrative arrangements, should be taken into account when studying various alternative financial patterns.

### *Public Informative Programs*

Information programs based on factual data to improve the public's awareness of the rights, needs and successes of handicapped children and adults are needed.

### *State Plans*

States should be encouraged to develop a comprehensive plan for special education services, setting forth policies, goals, mandates and minimum standards.

These items are not necessarily listed in order of importance. Not all the issues were identified as high-priority items by every state. More detailed information is available from HACHE/Education Commission of the States upon request.

## **INFORMATION SUPPLEMENT**

### **State Special Education Program and Finance Officials**



## INFORMATION SUPPLEMENT

*Following are listed addresses and phone numbers of state directors of special education administration and addresses of state officials most directly concerned with the financing of special education programs:*

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